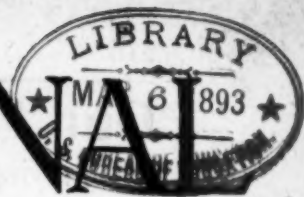


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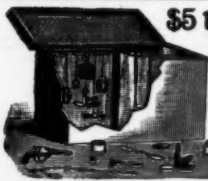
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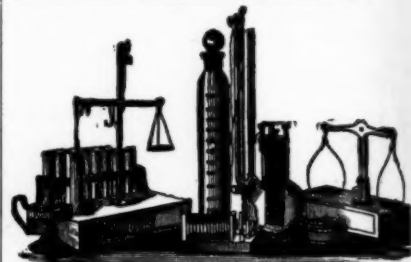
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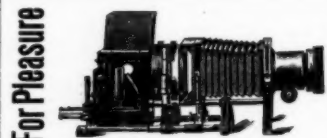


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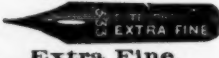
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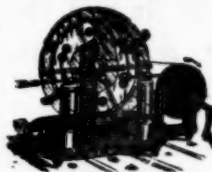
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# THE SCHOOL JOURNAL

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For the Week Ending March 4.

No. 9

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The business department of THE JOURNAL is on page 240.

All letters relating to contributions should be addressed plainly, "Editors of SCHOOL JOURNAL." All letters about subscriptions should be addressed to E. L. Kellogg & Co. Do not put editorial and business items on the same sheet.



WE give our readers this week a series of views of the interior and exterior of our new building, occupied since Dec. 1, and a condensed history of our enterprise from its beginning as a pioneer in school journalism in this country, through its various stages of growth to the present time. This four-page addition to our Primary Number, which, in itself, embodies our latest innovation, will be of especial interest sympathetically to our oldest friends, whose faithful support has enabled us to make THE JOURNAL what it is to-day. It will also interest our younger readers as a chapter in the educational history of our country. There was a time when it was difficult to make one school periodical pay the expenses of its publication. Now, not only is THE SCHOOL JOURNAL amply supported, but a number of competitors of excellent make-up and national circulation are also thriving. We shake hands with them all in fraternal congratulation over the improved pedagogical conditions that make this possible.

The importance of having a well defined purpose is evident if we consider that where there is no aim there can be no plan. Where there is a plan—even if the work is only manual—there are neatness, regularity, and dispatch. More is always done, and better done, with a plan than without one. Without a plan in school work, considered in relation to what has to be accomplished in the entire school life of the child, there comes to be waste of time, misdirected energies, useless repetitions, and round-about ways.

It is the effort of all skilful teachers to make the most of time in the school-room. They first of all get the pupil into doing his work intelligently; this is the basis of the interest we ask for in the school. The pupil must see into the processes he is required to perform, their relation to the end sought; and then that end must be a practical one. Nothing interests all of us so much as life, real life. Older pupils can consider abstract relations, but so-called grammar school pupils comprehend these far less than most of us believe.

History presents the most difficulties to the stage of intelligent intellectual activity; and the best teachers feel the importance of showing that the movements in history are on a large scale what transpires on a small scale in their vicinity. A quarrel between neighbors is shown to be like one that took place between two states or provinces. The subject is too large for further illustration here.

It was a remark of Mr. Emerson's that the pupils are supposed to be taught by the teacher, but in reality they are taught by each other. That is really a great teacher who causes this teaching to become a power in his school—who recognizes and organizes it. If a hole in a rock is filled with broken pieces of quartz and a stream of water is allowed to rush in for several days it will be found that the rough fragments have become polished spheres. (It is in this way that marbles are actually made.) A teacher with fifty boys before him can teach them but little. The wise teacher sets them to teaching themselves. This is the high art of teaching. The answers given by pupils to the teacher's questions are often more instructive than the studied statements of the teacher.

The advantages that may be obtained from a journey by school boys accompanied by a teacher are commented on by the *Sun*, in detailing the trip made last summer by Prof. R. H. Cornish, then a teacher in the Montclair high school, now among the faculty of Morgan Park school in Chicago. The account of this novel lesson in the study of nature was given in THE JOURNAL and attracted from thoughtful teachers no small attention. It may not be possible for every teacher to take out a class of boys, and every teacher is not competent, but the advantages of the study of plants, trees, soils, rocks, contours, elevations, brooks, and rivers are numerous. It would not be strange if this example should be followed by a good many during this present season.

The pen and pencil are class-room tools. The amount of doing in which they are engaged exceeds all that provided by other tools; the ruler, scissors, jack-knife, sand-paper, and mucilage-brush come next in the order of usefulness. The square, bradawl, gimlet, etc., follow.

The use of these tools distinguishes Primary Occupations from kindergarten occupations. The phrase "kindergarten occupations for primary schools" is a misnomer, or else represents an intrusion and a waste of time. The baby grows by shaking a rattle. The five-year-old boy, to keep on growing, must have more of definite and organized purpose in his movements. What "occupies" the kindergarten pupil educatively can no longer educate the same pupil after he enters the primary school. It is true that many children, not having enjoyed kindergarten, enter the school with such crudity of development as to need much training that may partake of kindergarten methods. It is also true that while the kindergarten folds paper for one purpose, the fraction class may legitimately fold paper for another. But folding paper ceases to be a kindergarten occupation when it is no longer done for kindergarten purposes.

"The individual repeats in himself the history of the race."—Ralph Waldo Emerson.

## The Value of Literature in Moral Training.

(Abstract of paper by PRESIDENT DEGARMO, of Swarthmore College, read at the meeting of the Department of Superintendence, Boston.)

Moral training as now practically realized in the public schools rests principally upon the inculcation of maxims of moral conduct and their enforcement by authority. This system leaves a gap which literature is well calculated to fill. Under the most rigorous system of authority there is still room for much moral badness that can not be reached by this means. A child may, for instance, be harsh or even cruel in his treatment of animals or other children. He may be greedy, surly, selfish, discontented; he may be obscene in his language, and a pollution to the whole neighborhood. The traditional minister's son often illustrates this fact. When the child becomes a man, he may give way to one after another of a whole catalogue of vices; he may, for instance, become a tyrannical husband and father, a worthless or injurious citizen; and yet from infancy to manhood never suffer seriously from the retribution of violated law. An additional danger is, that, when authority is relaxed, the habits it has established may give way, and the child surrender to the dictates of a bad disposition. Thus the widow's son may become a comfort or a heart-breaking sorrow to his mother.

The chief defect in our present system seems to lie in the feebleness of its influence upon the ideals and disposition of the child. This is in many cases left to accident, whereas much might be done through literature in all cases. The present tendency to give moral lessons from little books on ethical instruction is an exaggerated form of the old method of inculcating maxims, and must be pronounced inadequate. It tends to a premature, abnormal self-consciousness on the part of the child, and does not fill the gap that now exists.

Now, since all moral ideals are portrayed in literature in such a form as to attract the sympathetic interest of the child toward the good, and to arouse his antipathy to the bad; since literature is also perfectly adapted to all stages and phases of mind from the kindergarten to the university, treating each topic as an ethical whole, employing the most fascinating flights of the imagination, and giving the child the constant opportunity of passing disinterested moral judgments upon all sorts of situations, it is, as it seems to me, the most perfect of existing instruments for developing a happy, generous, unselfish disposition in children, and for giving them the most true, vivid, and concrete ideals of ethical conduct.

The literature open to us is of two kinds: one showing a mechanical requital for deeds, often emphasizing the negative idea of retribution; the other showing the larger group of social pleasures one may enjoy through the renunciation of selfish enjoyments associated with unethical actions. The latter is far more likely to arouse sympathetic interest in the higher thought, to develop the disposition along desirable lines. The use of literature employing the more mechanical and negative kinds of requital for good and evil should be restricted in amount and confined largely to early grades. Fables stand at the bottom of the list, since they deal with moral ideas purely from the utilitarian standpoint. Virtue pays a larger dividend than its opposite. Then come fairy tales and folk stories, which begin to introduce purely moral motives. After these there is a large body of literature that dwells upon the more individual phases of conduct. Such are the stories of ancient heroes as told in Hawthorne's *Wonder Book*, Homer's *Iliad*, *Odyssey*; or such modern books as *Little Lord Fauntleroy*, which shows the beauty of unselfishness. After this there is an immense mass of literature that reveals, in gradually broadening prospect, the relations of the individual to the various institutions of society. Sailor stories, for instance, show the devotion of the individuals to the ship, or the little community of which he forms a part. Indian tales of the right kind show the defence of the home against the savage. *Robinson Crusoe* develops the economic instinct of the child. While such books as

"Tom Brown at Rugby," give him many concrete illustrations of manliness at school. We may thus rise by a series of easy gradations to the great masterpieces of modern times, of which Shakespeare's dramas must ever take the lead in portraying the ethical relations of individuals to all phases of institutional life.

## Field-Work in Elementary Science.

By WILBUR S. JACKMAN, Cook County Normal School.

The evolution of the accepted means and methods of teaching elementary science which are now in highest favor has, within a short time, comparatively, amounted almost to a revolution. As is usually so with new undertakings, elementary science teaching was begun in a wrong way; but from irrational beginnings which have proved to be great hindrances, better ways and means are now being devised. Starting, as the work did, in colleges and the higher schools where the courses of study were already taken up with book studies thought to have no relation with nature, and at a time when the pupils had passed the age when observation is keenest, it was natural that the early science work should be based upon book lessons. Many minds of the present generation of teachers are stored with meaningless symbols that are the relics of that kind of teaching. For example, at the mention of so common a thing as the different kinds of clouds, there will rise in the minds of perhaps most persons, not images of real cloud-forms floating overhead, but the ghost of a certain old *picture* which was handed down from one generation of physical geographers to another, from a time when "the memory of man runneth not to the contrary," in which there was represented the very remarkable phenomenon of five or six different kinds of clouds in a comparatively small sky area. A great deal of this pseudo-teaching was done before the brilliant thought seemed to occur to any one that the direct, simple, and natural way to do this is merely to look up at the heavens as the clouds themselves appear. The symbols with which this epoch of science teaching stored the mind were not altogether useless, but they were not acquired as a natural result of all-around mind growth and consequently they could not act as a stimulus to further study. This period is marked as one in which the pupils spent their time in *reading* and in reciting what they had read.

The emptiness of the text-book method became apparent, after a time, and as a result of the general revolt against it, the teacher substituted himself for the book. In many instances it was a poor exchange. The chief gain lay in the fact that the "lecturing" or "talking" teacher soon found that, in order to "talk" it was absolutely necessary for him to have something of real experience as a basis. This drove him to deeper study and increased the faith in science teaching. As a result, the teacher began to use certain objects in his class-work through pictures and diagrams occupied an important place in the beginning. On the whole the pupils were brought one step nearer to nature than they were under the text-book *regime*.

The results of this kind of teaching were patchy and unsystematic and the method contained certain radical defects. In the first place, it failed to cultivate strength and self-reliance on the part of the pupil, as he was given but little to do. The pupil was kept away from apparatus that it might not be broken, and the teacher usually collected whatever material was needed for classwork. The latter involved a great deal of extra labor and frequently it happened that the objects were not presented to the pupil under normal conditions. On the whole the pupils of this period spent their time chiefly in *listening*.

At the present time, teachers are very generally engaged upon the problem of keeping their pupils in daily contact with nature under normal conditions. Some of the baffling difficulties of the preceding periods do not now appear but new ones are here to fill their places. The chief hope of the anxious science teacher in the common schools would seem to lie in the gradual perfection of the means and plans for conducting field-work.



The general perversity of things is well illustrated by the fact that in the schools where such work would be most easily done—that is, the country schools—there it is the least attempted by the teacher and it would be the least encouraged by patrons and school officers.

The function of the field-lesson is a wide one; there is scarcely a lesson in elementary science, such as is demanded by primary and grammar grades, which cannot be best taught out of doors if one can have access to the appropriate conditions. Teachers hesitate to undertake field-work and fail to secure good results from a variety of causes. A few hints derived from experience may be of use in this connection.

1. Very often a field-lesson fails because its object is not fully appreciated by the pupils. On the occasion of the first out-door lesson, the children have an embarrassing tendency to caper about, kick up their heels, and roll in the grass and leaves. This is not necessarily a sign of depravity but it is very difficult for a teacher long accustomed to class-room quiet to view such proceedings with equanimity. The cure for this "coltishness" will be found in frequent repetition. If a definite object of study be assigned each day and a certain *resume* of results be required new habits of study, suited to the new way, will soon be formed. One of the chief difficulties attending field-work is the lack of frequency of the lessons.

2. Make the dynamical side of nature, in whatever department the lesson falls, the center of study. In the past the field-lesson has been but little more than a collecting tour. In botany, plants and flowers were carried home and studied chiefly to learn their names by means of a "key." They were then pressed, mounted, and laid away, in many cases, to become the victims of certain pests which infest herbariums. In geology, fossils and rocks were gathered and with much toil carried home to be shelved. Such collections have their place in every naturalist's work, but their interest lies in the story they can tell of themselves and the forces that made them, and they become objects of real value to the pupil, only, as he acquires power to interpret their meaning. In botany, therefore, more fruitful lessons may be given upon the relation of the plant to its habitat; in contrasting those of the meadow with those of the woodland; those of the swamp with those of the upland, and so on. In zoology, make a similar study; find why the animals prefer one mode of life to another; what influence the various physical features have upon them; what their relations are to each other and to ourselves; what ones could really be destroyed without our sustaining any loss whatever. In geology, the rocks and fossils contain a marvelous history of untold ages that is not distorted by a single human prejudice! The wearing and building agencies, organic and inorganic, give a wonderful insight into geographic study.

3. On returning from the field-lesson, have the pupils make a record of their observations or in some way summarize the results of the work which they have done in the field. Just what form this exercise should take will depend upon what the subject of the lesson has been. Sand or clay modeling, with blackboard sketches would appropriately follow a lesson in almost any subject; drawings, paintings, written and oral descriptions may then be called for as the material studied may seem to demand. The mode of expression will also be determined by the age of the pupils. Written work is usually the least satisfactory to both pupil and teacher, as such descriptions are less graphic and lack the strength that the pupil can put into the other modes of expression. The main point to be enforced is that each pupil shall have something definite to show as a result of his observations.

4. The practical and beneficial results of field-work may often be gained without sending the school out of doors as a whole. Subjects may be assigned, such as germination, flowering, opening of buds, erosion, nesting of birds, etc., and the pupils may be required to follow up the teacher's suggestions individually. In the great majority of cases this plan will fail utterly because of the teacher's inability to keep track of the individual.

Teachers, as a rule, in the ordinary class-room work see the mass—not the individual. Such teachers always find that elementary science work tends to "make their room go to pieces."

5. The proper care of the younger pupils when engaged in field-work entails a heavy responsibility upon the teacher. Especially is this so when the trips must be made in part by railroad. Much trouble and care may be avoided by dividing the responsibility with the pupils themselves. This may be done by giving an older child of an advanced grade charge of a younger one of lower grade. This plan will tend to steady the older pupils, and to be the wards of the big boys and girls will delight the younger ones. It is of first importance that the field-work be free from danger of accidents, if for no other reason, because any injury to the children would, probably, and justly too, cause the patrons to put an end to all such work for an indefinite period. Field-work, judiciously planned and skilfully executed, does not ordinarily meet with serious opposition from parents.

The present may be characterized as a period in which the pupils spend their time in *doing*. But *doing* implies both *reading* and *listening*. The good in what has preceded must still be retained. Books may still be studied but chiefly for the hints they give as to methods of study and observation. The teacher must still make explanations which will assist the pupil in seeing more clearly the relations between the different parts of his work. But the pupil, thrown more and more upon his own resources, becomes self-reliant and strong through the natural development of his own powers.



## A Short Road to Reading.

The astonishingly quick results attained by new methods that fly on the wings of rumor to startle the ever-sanguine teachers usually occur in some distant locality. We, in America, hear, to our despair, of Parisian children taught to read in six weeks, and in France the quick methods of "Les Etats-Unis" are sometimes reported, to the discomfiture of local teachers. This time, however, the good news comes from Brooklyn, which, if distant by thousands of miles from the homes and classrooms of many of our subscribers, is still near enough to the publication office of THE JOURNAL for our faithful report of what is going on there to be regarded as authentic.

The experiment is Assistant Superintendent Edward G. Ward's, tried for a term in three schools where conditions were especially favorable to its success, transplanted then to one or two schools where the locality was unfavorable, but the teaching force to be relied upon, given finally to the schools of the entire city, according to our statement of last week. The method is a refinement of the Phonetic and Word Methods, not yet fully developed, but full of achievement, even in its infancy.

The Word Method receives two significant modifications: 1. The vocabulary thus taught is *not* necessarily that of the primer, or of any one book, so that the teacher is, for the first time in the annals of this city, free to develop, if she will, the highest usefulness of reading by connecting it with the other subjects. 2. The words thus taught are *not* phonetic words, which can be so much more easily taught later on by the application of phonetic principles.

The Phonetic Method, also, receives two great modifications: 1. It is robbed of all its terrors by having its drills graded, the earlier ones being upon the easier sounds and the words that can be formed from them. 2. It is made synthetic throughout.

A thousand words during the first term is the minimum aspiration of the teachers who have tried this method, even in the much dreaded "foreign neighborhoods," where the children must acquire after entering school nearly all of that great wealth of words which the American child brings with him ready learned, and not



only this, but the more difficult elementary sounds that have been the familiar property of the average American child for several years at the date of his initiation to school life. In these wards a phonetic method is necessary in learning to talk if not in learning to read; and this work in phonics for foreigners is perhaps the most exhausting done by any teacher.

Graded phonics, applied to reading and speech at once, together with freedom from the trammels of chart and primer, is proving the clue to easy reading in the schools wherein reading has been most difficult. It is important to add that oral spelling is banished from the classes in which this method is applied, to be taken up at a subsequent stage of the work. Not for this season, but for others which have brought phonics into disrepute among teachers of orthography we would utter a caution. This method, while it has already proved a boon to the youngest reading classes, has not yet shown its full relation to spelling. All those large classes of words that can be taught by sound or by their analogies have their orthography provided for easily and effectively; but the spelling of unphonetic words without numerous analogues remains a source of disquiet to the teacher who looks ahead. In the hands of a teacher who has already handled phonics by such careful steps as to lead up to perfect spelling, as well as to a mastery of reading, this method is safe; and even though it should seriously endanger the future orthography, its usefulness in the noble and much-abused art of reading is so great and its service in shortening the road to literature and recorded science so invaluable, that we should still unhesitatingly recommend it.

The work is given more in detail in our department of Primary Methods.

### Superintendents in Boston.

The convention of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, held in Boston, February 21, 22, and 23, was in many respects a notable meeting.

1. In the first place it was a large meeting and largely composed of distinguished educators. There was the genial and gentlemanly Dr. Edward Brooks, its president, superintendent of the schools of Philadelphia; there was the cultured philosopher, Dr. Harris, the United States commissioner of education; there was the large-hearted, cordial, philosophical joker, Dr. Marble, of Worcester, Mass.; the scholarly and genial James L. Hughes, of Toronto, Canada; the broad-minded, good-natured, sledge hammer Judge Draper, of Cleveland, Ohio; the tall, broad, massive Dr. Maxwell, of Brooklyn; the brilliant Fitzpatrick, of Omaha; the solid and substantial Warren Easton, of New Orleans; the wiry, aggressive, iconoclast President Eliot, of Harvard; the cordial, good-natured old war-horse, Henry Sabin, of Des Moines; the young philosopher, editor, rising star Poland, of New Jersey; that grand old German hero, Henry Raab, of Illinois; there was the new secretary, Treudley, of Ohio, characterized by the Boston *Journal* as resembling Phillips Brooks in his personal appearance; Powell, of Washington; Prettyman, of Baltimore; Dickinson and Seaver, of Boston; the model superintendent, Aaron Gove, of Denver; the imperturbable Greenwood, of Kansas City; the pedagogist, Balliet, of Springfield, Mass.; the intellectual president, De Garmo, of Swarthmore college; Dr. Rounds, of New Hampshire; the new president, Dr. Kiehle, of Minnesota; Dougherty, of Illinois; Francis Bellamy, of the *Youth's Companion*; Dr. Boyden, of Bridgewater; William E. Sheldon, cosmopolitan of the whole educational world; Mayfield, of South Carolina; the veteran Stockwell, of Rhode Island; the learned Dr. Phillips, of Birmingham, Alabama; J. C. Greenough, of Westfield, Mass.; Gilbert, of St. Paul; Cogswell, of Cambridge; Barringer, of New Jersey; Tarbell, of Providence, R. I.; that intelligent supervisor, Wise, of Baltimore; that grand, practical, educator worthy to be the successor of George Howland, Albert G. Lane, of Chicago; R. K. Buehrle, of Lancaster, Pa.; Robert C. Metcalf, of Boston; John T. Prince, of Boston; the manual trainer, Virgil G. Curtis, of New Haven, Conn.; and another, C. E. Meleney, of Somerville, Mass.; and last, but not least, the great educational reformer, Col. Francis W. Parker, of Chicago. These are only a few among the many distinguished men who figured conspicuously in this remarkable convention.

2. The second point to be noted concerning this convention is that its papers and discussions were of a very high order, and treated of the most practical subjects. Some of the papers will take a very high rank in the educational literature of the day. I did not hear a weak paper before the convention. Where all were so worthy it would be invidious to particularize.

3. One serious mistake was made. A mistake which inter-

fered materially with the comfort of many people. Somebody, either for political reasons, it being near the fourth of March, or otherwise, left wide-open the great front doors of the North-west. The consequence was a full-fledged blizzard with two feet of snow came down upon cultured Boston with all the rapid transit facilities of the day and with all the remorseless and cruel vengeance of the Vandals. The snow was piled in the streets, Ossa upon Pelion. Possibly Mark Twain had something to do with this affair. It certainly furnished an object lesson to those Westerners, and more especially to the visiting brethren from the sunny South, of how many kinds of weather one can pick up on occasion within twenty-four hours in the metropolis of New England. The snow and the cold were of such proportions as to mark this as "an old-fashioned New England winter," the like of which is not "in the memory of the oldest inhabitant."

4. Wednesday was Cambridge day. Harvard college was open-handed and open-hearted. Everybody enjoyed Cambridge and Harvard.

5. But, after all, the great feature of the meeting was the social element. Every day the association was lunched and dined and received.

Tuesday evening was a grand reception on the part of the school board of Boston, in the capacious armory of the famous Boston Latin school. The hall was beautifully decorated and the occasion was delightful to all.

Wednesday the superintendents were dined at Harvard college. The occasion was every way creditable to Harvard and enjoyable for the guests, who in spite of the storm were there in large numbers. In the afternoon, Miss Lucy Wheelock of the Chauncy Hall school gave a very pleasant "at home." The veteran of veterans, Hon. Henry Barnard, was there to receive.

At four o'clock the famous Massachusetts Schoolmasters' club held its meeting at the Brunswick. Dr. Kiehle, Judge Draper, Aaron Gove, Fitzpatrick, of Omaha, Dr. Hughes, of Toronto, and the redoubtable Colonel Parker, were among the speakers on this interesting occasion. The meeting was thoroughly enjoyable to all.

### THE AUTHORS' LUNCH.

But the great entertainment took place at the Vendome on Thursday, at the close of the morning session. This entertainment was termed "Authors' Lunch." This beautiful and bountiful collation was provided by the Boston publishers.

Among the specially invited guests were Oliver Wendell Holmes, T. B. Aldrich, J. T. Trowbridge, Margaret F. Deland, Thomas Wentworth Higginson, H. E. Scudder, H. Butterworth, Arlo Bates, Prof. and Mrs. Palmer, Louise Chandler Moulton, Edna Dean Proctor, Mrs. Phelps Ward, Jane G. Austin, Sarah Orne Jewett, Prof. and Mrs. Goodwin, Abby Morton Diaz, Miss Gertrude Hall, Mrs. Blake, C. F. Adams, Mrs. J. T. Fields, Justin Winsor, Helen A. Shafer, E. H. Capen, S. B. Capen, J. W. Dickenson, E. P. Seaver, Dr. Edward Brooks, W. T. Adams, and F. H. Underwood. The college presidents invited were Eliot, of Harvard; Capen, of Tufts; Shafer, of Wellesley; Andrews, of Brown; Gates, of Amherst; and Walker, of Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

The hero of the occasion could not well be other than Dr. Oliver Wendell Holmes. Mr. H. O. Houghton, of the firm of Houghton, Mifflin & Co., the world-renowned publishers of Holmes, Longfellow, Whittier, Lowell, and other famous American authors, introduced their "life-long friend, The Autocrat of the Breakfast Table." Dr. Holmes, now in his eighty-fourth year was as lively as a cricket and as brilliant as the sun. He did not, of course, write as funny as he could, because he never dared to do that but once, but he was witty and jolly and the impromptu verses which he dashed off that morning at just half past ten speak for themselves. Here they are:

Teacher of teachers, yours the task,  
Noblest that noble minds can ask,  
High up Ionia's marmorous mount,  
To watch, to guard the Sacred Fount  
That feeds the stream below;  
To guide the hurrying flood that fills  
A thousand silvery rippling rills,  
In ever widening flow,  
Rich is the harvest from the fields,  
That bounteous Nature kindly yields,  
But fairer growth enrich the soil,  
Ploughed deep by thoughts and wearied toil,  
In learning's broad domain.  
And where the leaves, the flowers, the fruits,  
Without your watering at the roots,  
To fill each branching plain.  
Welcome! the author's firmest friends,  
Your voice, the surest God's deed, lends,  
Of you the growing mind demands,  
The patient care, the guiding hands  
Through all the mists of morn.  
You, knowing well the future's need,  
Your prescient wisdom sows the seed,  
To fire the years unborn.

On the whole, barring the weather, the gathering was a great success and evidently enjoyed by all. The cause of education will be the gainer thereby.

# PRIMARY METHODS

## Our Story Pictures.

The pictures, as will be seen at a glance, are related as parts of one story. The moral, too, is obvious. *Banana peel on the sidewalk is a source of danger to pedestrians.*

Questions: What is the boy doing? Is he doing anything wrong? Why is it wrong to throw banana peel on the sidewalk? Do strong and active people sometimes slip on such substances? How then about people who are not strong and active? Who are the people most likely to slip? (The blind, the lame, the old, the near-sighted, the sick.) Who are the people the boy would least like to see fall and hurt themselves? (The same.) What is happening to the old lady in the second picture? Do you suppose she saw the peel? Why not? How do you think the boy will feel if he is near enough to hear her cry out and see her fall? What shall we always remember after this to be very careful about? Tell (or write) the story.

In order to use the Story Pictures to the best advantage with the youngest children, it is necessary to show them both at once. With older pupils, it is sometimes better to have the first picture discussed alone; then show the second and ask what relation it bears to the first, etc.

## First Reading Simplified.

The new arrangement of the Phonetic and Word Methods of teaching reading that has been successfully tried and is now being generally introduced in Brooklyn is, in practice, as follows:

I. About eighty words are taught by the word and sentence method. These words may be selected from any book (no chart or primer reading is required), or they may be related to any subject or subjects the teacher chooses. They must include a number of nouns, verbs, and adjectives, the most common prepositions, and other parts of speech needed to form a great variety of sentences. As a rule, phonetic words are avoided, because it is found bad economy to teach by arbitrary and separate association, words that can be learned more easily in large groups when their structure is clear to the child.

II. While these eighty words are being slowly acquired; the phonetic method is introduced by a series of very careful steps. Those sounds are selected for the first drills that run into one another easily, as *f, m, r, l, n, s, w* (pronounced *ōō*) *ā*. If *t, k*, or any other explosive, is used it is placed at the end of the word. Children can "sound" *mate* when they cannot sound *lame*. The syllable *ing* is taught as one sound with the first list. These easy sounds need no practice for vocal purposes, but they are to be associated with their symbols. This is done by rapid blackboard drill. The teacher writes the list we have given on the blackboard in several differently arranged columns, and the children call off as she points. These symbols are taught one at a time. *M* and *n* are separated as far as possible in the lists, and one of them is taught as long before the other as possible. The same precaution is taken with *f* and *s*. This is done to avoid confusing sounds or symbols that are so nearly alike to the child's senses.

III. Simultaneously with these two lines of work, a third proceeds. This is oral practice upon words composed of the sounds in the list, and spelled with these letters. It has to be borne in mind that these words must be such as are spelled as well as "sounded" in accordance with the list. The teacher gives the sounds that make the word and the pupil tells what the word is. This practice is continued with increasing rapidity until the answers are instantaneous. The words given with the first list of sounds is as follows, subject to addition or subtraction at the option of the teacher:

*Ail, fail, sail, nail, snail, mail, rail, frail, wail, waif, wait, wake, ate, mate, late, slate, rate, fate, lake, rake, make, sake, slake, flake, snake, aim, lame, name, same, fame, flame, frame, lane, mane, rain, faint, waste, may, nay, say, lay, slay, safe, way, wing, sing, ring, raking, aiming, making, ailing, failing, sailing, nailing, mailing, railing, slaking, flaming, raining, waking, wailing, waiting, wasting, saying, laying, slaying, ringing, singing, sling, slinging, fling, flinging.*

IV. When the oral practice on these words has "made perfect," and the symbols are so thoroughly associated with their sounds that not an instant's hesitation occurs in calling them off—not till then, for absolute perfection at this stage is an essential point—the words are written on the board, one at a time, their silent letters canceled and the children gently led, through the "sounding" process, to ascertain what they are. After a little practice, this becomes very interesting to the children. The words are then introduced in sentences, one at a time, carefully marked, and are read without any difficulty. The work is so timed that the completion of this part of the phonetic work coincides in time with that of the first eighty words taught arbitrarily. This much of the phonetic work requires time and patience, but when this point is reached, "the back of learning to read is broken." After this the work proceeds much more rapidly, though the same steps are taken and with equal care.

V. While this first list of phonetic words is being familiarized in sentences a second is made the subject of oral practice. This list contains but one new sound, and the symbol is not taught until the oral work on the list has been completed. Then it is added to the first list of symbols (which are constantly drilled upon, to keep up the rapidity of association) and the words are placed on the board and studied out by the children as before, while a new set is taken up for oral practice. This succession of operations is continued through list after list, while unphonetic words are continually being taught by the word method. The second list is substantially as follows:

*Eat, eel, east, ear, seek, seal, seem, see, sea, seen, seat, feel, feet, feast, fear, rear, smear, lean, leak, least, leaf, me, meal, mean, meet, meat, meek, knee, kneel, neat, near, real, reek, ream, reef, steep, sleek, sleet, sneak, flee, fleet, free, weal, wean, weak, new, we, sweet, week, rearing, eating, seeking, sealing, seeming, seeing, seating, feeling, feasting, fearing, leaning, leaking, leaving, meaning, meeting, kneeling, reeling, reeking, reefing, sleeting, sneaking, fleeing, fleeing.*

The third list adds the syllable *er* to words already known. These new words are practiced upon orally, just as their predecessors were (the added syllable being spoken as one sound) before being introduced to the eye. In adding *er* to written words ending in silent *e*, the final should be erased, with some remark to call attention to the act. Thus a rule for spelling may be taught, but it should not be forced insistently upon the children at this early age. If the opportunities this system affords of teaching the regularities of spelling are thus made timely use of, the irregularities will finally group themselves apart in a quite manageable class. The third list is as follows, and is very quickly taught:

*Safer, fainter, maker, later, layer, feeler, leaner, meaner, nearer, neater, sleeker, flecter, frailer, lamer, slayer, ringer, singer, slinger, flinger, wafer, waiter, weaker.*

In the fourth list, the mistake was made at first of introducing short *i*. This was the first mistake in the original series (unless it be excepted that *s* as an initial letter is too difficult a sound for the first list). The long vowels are much easier than the short, and of the short vowels *i* is the most difficult. Teachers trying this system will therefore do well to make their own lists from this point on, observing the principles already laid down and taking advantage in each new list of all preceding words. After the long vowels and the explosives *k, t, p, b, d, g*, at the ends of words, are exhausted, take up the short vowels and the more difficult combinations of consonant sounds. In the choice of words made on any given number of sounds, it is not necessary to discard those orally known to the child, nor is it necessary to include every word these sounds will make. There is room for discretion here, the choice falling, as a rule, upon those words that are already in or near the child's range of thought.

Thirteen hundred words is an ordinary number to be taught by this system during the first term. A thousand may be adopted as the minimum. These words, whether rationally known to the child or not, offer no obstruction to mechanical reading. If so introduced as to obscure the sense, they may spoil the natural



ness of the reading, but not otherwise. The independence gained by the pupils is wonderful.

## The Thought Method of Teaching Reading. VI.

By SUPT. E. H. DAVIS, Chelsea, Mass.

One of the best means of improving the expression, articulation, and enunciation of children is a skilful use of emphasis, even to exaggeration.

Very soon after they have learned to recognize the script form of words they should be taught to read each sentence in several ways, giving special emphasis to one and another of the words in the sentence, excepting the three articles *a*, *an*, and *the*, which should never be sounded separately, but always as if each were a part of the word which follows it.

This subject may be taught, first, by questioning. Suppose the sentence to be, "I have a hen." The teacher says to the child who has read it, "What have you? Make the word *hen* strong." etc. Again, when the word has been pronounced with due emphasis, the teacher asks, "Who has a hen?" or, "Who have the hen?" calling attention to *I*, and pronouncing it with strong emphasis. In the same way attention is called to *have*. Thus the same pupil reads the same sentence in several different ways at each lesson, which acquaints him with a very useful mode in reading, and which soon becomes an important aid in the interpretation of thought.

It is an exercise which affords enjoyment, but soon tends to exaggeration of emphasis. This is a healthful tendency, bringing out enthusiasm, facial expression, etc. The exaggeration will subside in due time to a very natural expression pleasing to hear. Remember that it is better to cultivate expression by questioning than by imitation. Let there be no imitation at any stage, unless it be the voice and manner of the children who excel in this respect. You can never have natural reading if the child is allowed to imitate *your* voice and manner. Besides, we wish to establish the habit of independent interpretation of the sense, which is a very easy thing to do, from the start. Do not lose this vantage.

There is another process of bringing out emphasis, although not as good as that of questioning; it is that of underlining the words to be emphasized. Thus, in the sentence, "I have a pretty white hen," we may write it as follows and bring out the different expressions I have before mentioned:—

I have a pretty white *hen*.  
I have a pretty *white* hen.  
I have a *pretty* white hen.  
I *have* a pretty white hen.  
I have a pretty white *hen*.

Such exercises are excellent for the cultivation of the voices of children, more potent than any other form yet devised, and their bearing as an aid to thought-reading cannot be calculated until tried. It certainly breaks the monotony of the lessons and affords a very pleasing variation—so desirable in the instruction of children.

While the classes are at the blackboard, having finished the reading lesson, it is a good plan to teach them how to write the nine Arabic figures. It is surprising to see how many pupils in the grammar schools may be found who have not learned how to write these characters correctly, or who write them with a back-handed movement. This is the result of oversight on the part of the teachers, at the outset. They do not consider the importance of starting every child right in the matter of writing figures,—which is nearly of as much consequence as the writing of letters. Two minutes, daily, spent in writing the figures, each child writing them in the presence of the class, in the correct form, will soon establish the habit for life. It will be an interesting experiment to test a school of advanced pupils and note how many of them write the figure *eight* correctly.

A continuance of the steps I have thus far outlined, in blackboard exercises exclusively for the first half of the first year, will be the best preparation for the reading from books, and the subsequent advancement in books will more than compensate for the time they have been kept from the children. It may be that, at first, you will not teach more than one hundred and fifty words, but this is of little consequence in comparison with the habits that are formed. There will be no difficulty in teaching three hundred words to the brighter children, when once acquainted with the process from experience, although nothing will be gained in teaching more than this number.

We come now to the transition from script to print, which is a very easy step. If the primer contains no script sentences with the corresponding print underneath, illustrate the printed lesson on the blackboard by writing nearly, if not quite all the words in script. This will remove every difficulty when the books are distributed to the class for them to read the print. If any one does not grasp the thought of the first sentence, you will observe

him looking upon the blackboard, and presently his hand will be raised as an indication that he is able and ready to read it.

The children never read in turn, but raise the hand as soon as the thought is understood, and read only when called upon. When requested to read, the pupil closes his book, or at least, is never allowed to read while looking on the page, during the first year. This answers the same purpose as the pointer,—prevents every attempt to read until the entire sentence has been looked through and the sense obtained. It fixes the habit of always looking through the sentence until the thought is gleaned, in whatever is read. It also cultivates and strengthens the memory.

Should the child be unable to read the sentence after the illustrations are made on the blackboard, ask him to point to the word he does not understand and then write it again on the board in script. He will quickly observe the resemblance and raise his hand to read. It will require but one or two lessons before the print is easily and readily understood. Continue the plan of emphasizing the different words of each sentence, the same pupil reading it in all of its different ways.

## The Mechanics of Reading.

(Concluded.)

By E. E. K.

16. Write all the words you can and see who will have the neatest slate. (Say nothing about spelling. There will be very few mistakes if you do not yourself make the mistake of introducing spelling as a hardship and a burden.) Let the child who has the most call off his list, allowing the others the privilege of adding from it to their own any that they can write but had not thought of.

17. Pick out words often missed, and arrange them in three or four columns. Pick out scholars who miss them and match them in even twos. Send two at a time to B. B., with pointers; start them up or down a column and see who can get to the end of the ladder first.

18. Make columns containing the day's new words and difficult ones for review and have volunteers run up and down them until the slow pupils take an interest and succeed.

19. In similar columns let slow pupils, two by two, see who can first find a given word, called out by the teacher, the class deciding who wins.

20. Yesterday's reading lesson being still on the board, let contestants see who can find a given word the greatest number of times in the sentences.

21. Let class hunt through reading book for a given word to see on how many pages they can find it. Proper names are the best words for this purpose, because the capital aids in the rapid search.

22. Let class examine all the signs they pass in the streets and report number of familiar words found.

23. Here is the alphabet (in script). Write the letters I point to, putting them together in a word, and let us see who will be the first to tell me what the word is—*m, a, n*. Ada is "out." She must not tell any more. Here is another word.

24. Here is a word you know very well—what is it? Who can tell me what other word I can make out of it by changing one letter? etc.

25. Who can think of a word from which I can erase a letter and so make another word?

26. Here are all the words we have learned. Pick out all that have the sound *k*. If that sound is given by the letter *c*, write the word on the right hand side of your slate, and put a *c* at the top of the column, so. If it is given by the letter *k*, write it at the left hand side and put a *k* at the top of the column. Let us see who will find the most of each.

27. Mary shall give you the sounds of a word to write. When you have written all the sounds tell her what silent letter you add or say "No silent letter." (Mary should be furnished, for this purpose, with a list of words having silent letters at the end or not at all.)

28. I shall give you a word you have never seen, just to see how many can write it without learning it. (Dictate only phonetically spelled words, and caution the children at the end of the exercise not to get it into their heads that they can manage all words so easily. Ask if they can tell what kind of words it would be impossible for them to write without first learning them. See if you can get some one to say, *Words with silent letters*. Add that there are other words, too, that have to be regularly learned.)

29. Write in a column all the words you know that have the sound *ā*, and see who will be the first to tell me something else that makes those words alike. (They all have a silent letter.) Extend to other long vowels as the word list grows so as to include enough of each.

30. Who knows three letters that stand for the sound *k*? (*c, k, q*.) Two that stand for the sound *z*? etc.

31. Make a list of all the words that have silent *g*. (*Light,*



etc.) If there are any that you think *may* have it you may ask.

32. Make the longest list you can of words ending in *ing*. If you want to *make* any, ask me how first, or you may get in something that doesn't belong there. (Suppression of silent *e*, as in give, giving.) Extend this exercise to other suffixes and prefixes. (Signification of same.)

33. Write all the words you know that are made up of two words. (Into, without, forget, etc.)

These exercises have now been carried into second year work. They may be continued until all the rules of spelling have been taught. As "games," they have become more sober than at first, partaking now of the interest the grown-up student feels in research and acquisition.

We have but to add a last reminder that this work is not *Reading*, and to suggest a Superintendent's examination on The Mechanics of Reading to close the first year's work:

1. Rapid word-calling from list of familiar words.
2. Vocal analysis by children of new words of six or eight sounds.
3. Test pupils' ability to pull apart written words and construct others upon their fragments.
4. Pronouncing at sight unfamiliar words written on B. B., and phonetically marked.

## First Steps in Language.

By JENNIE M. SKINNER, Principal of Alden Street School, Springfield, Mass.

The sphere is a form of beauty, and of symmetry or equal measurements. It is the form of nature, for the earth, the stars, and all the other heavenly bodies are spheres. In our drawing lessons what have we learned that a sphere can do? "A sphere can roll and stand." As it stands on a plane surface, where does it touch it? "It touches a plane only on one point."

Name some objects that look like spheres. "An orange looks like a sphere." "Marbles and balls are spheres." "Round fruits, and some eggs are made in the form of spheres." "Cannon balls, shot, and croquet balls are spheres." "Mail and snow balls are like spheres."

In our lesson on leaves, we learned that there are little cells in the tissue of the leaf. If you hold the leaf so that the light shines through it, you will see the shape of each little cell. Of what do these "hollow sphere" remind you? "The soap-bubble, which is also a hollow ball."

If we could imagine ourselves in the center of a hollow sphere, every point on the outside would be the same distance from us. What is the difference between a soap-bubble and a sphere? What can we draw to represent this solid? You may each cut out your circles.

(These free-hand circles were hung on the wall before the children.) [We should use great care not to introduce the circle too early. If the circle, as the representation of the sphere is given below the third grade, the children are apt to confuse it with the sphere itself.]

The sphere is the form of life, and the form of development. In our natural history readers we read that the little ants build their houses in circular heaps. When they carry out the grains of sand, they walk the same distance from the center, each time, thus leaving the outside grains equally distant from the center. Think of the shape of the path the ant would travel in going around the edge of the hill. What other "circular paths" can you mention? "If a fly crawls around an orange, its path is circular." "When an insect crawls around the trunk of a tree, its path is circular." "If a man travels all around the earth, his path is circular." "Horses running around a race course, come back to where they started, and are said to run around a ring, or in a circular path."

You may represent the path the ant would take in going around its hill. Place a dot in the center, to show the gate or opening. From this dot draw a number of straight lines leading out from it to represent the journeys of the ants. We might change this to represent a flower. What is the shape of the daisy? It is round because the petals are rays of equal length coming from the center; that makes the outward edge seem round. As every part measures the same, the flower is symmetrical. With a few more touches, you can make your picture into a little face, framed in a white cap-border. "I have a circular tablet that will match the face of my model." If I wished to cut a door in this cardboard, just large enough for the sphere to pass through, of what shape should I make it?

You may each make a sphere of clay. The sphere is limited, or bounded, by what kind of a surface? Find objects in the room that are limited by a curved surface, and tell the name of each. Make another sphere of clay, of the same size as the first. You may cut the second sphere into two equal parts, that is,



bisect it. (Wire or horse hair may be used for cutting the clay.)

Find the likenesses and differences between the sphere and hemisphere. What did you find in the hemisphere that is not found in the sphere? Can you mention objects like a hemisphere? Can any one make and bring to school an object like a hemisphere?

When we look at a landscape before us, we speak of the fine *view* before our eyes. You may observe the front view of the sphere. Look down on the model to get a top view. Complete answers should be required from all the pupils. If their observations have been accurate, there will be little doubt but that they will express themselves clearly.

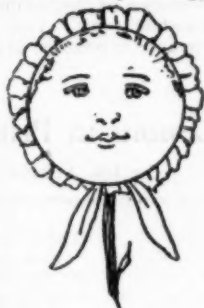
Pestalozzi says: "Observation is the absolute basis of all knowledge. The first object then, in education, must be to lead the child to observe with accuracy; the second, to express, with correctness, the results of his observation." Things are held in the mind by their form and not by their number; so, a pupil who studies form and natural science, in a parallel course with number, and combines all three in language, will know much more of all three studies, than one who takes each separately. Charts on form can be made to supplement the work in reading. As the sentences contained in them are developed in the language lesson, the charts are the written observations of the pupils. For example:

The sphere is a solid.  
It can be made of clay, wood, iron, and other things.  
A sphere is round in all directions.  
What can a sphere do?  
It can stand and roll.  
The sphere rolls in any direction.  
A ball is a sphere.  
An orange is a sphere.  
Annie's beads are spheres.  
The earth is a sphere.  
The circle is the picture of a sphere.

Cards, on which are written sentences relating to form study, are used in the first grade, for quick recognition. One card is held before the class for a few seconds, then turned down, while a pupil gives the thought contained on it. The children are encouraged to represent a solid in as many ways as possible: First, by making in clay, then by cutting or folding from paper; also by tablets and stick laying, and by drawing and painting.

Drawing is the language by which we express the sight impressions of form. In drawing we can show the light and shade of the sphere, and by painting, we can show the color of it. Modeling is an exact reproduction in similar forms. By making, modeling, drawing, and painting an object, and by oral and written words, the child has many methods of expression, for modes of thinking. Mr. Hitchings, director of drawing, is constantly giving this thought to his classes: that drawing is the language of form, and its alphabet, the dot, the straight line, and the curved line, and that its language is universally understood. This thought opens the way to many lessons of practical importance and interest.

In giving form work, it is well, at first, to select forms that occur most frequently in nature and in thinking. What are sometimes called small and common things, may be made of the greatest assistance in this work. For there is nothing great, and nothing small, except as measured by some arbitrary standard of comparison. In nature, the small is as important as the large, and as perfect in detail; also as necessary in its place and relations. In these lessons on form, frequent opportunities of applying the terms and names of the solids should be given to the pupils, and they should always be required to give *complete* sentences. The clearness of their expression, will show the clearness of their understanding of the subject. The aim of this lesson was to have the children observe, think, and express their thoughts in simple and correct forms of speech. By arousing their curiosity about things which they saw and handled, their mental growth was being constantly stimulated, and their active powers of expression called out.



After all the newest authors are the oldest. In a new edition ("Familiar Quotations") we have a lot of familiar sayings traced away back to Greece and Egypt. A new author by the name of Pilpay, a Brahmin who lived several centuries before Christ wrote in Sanscrit this: "What is bred in the bone will never come out of the flesh." "Possession is the strongest tenure of the law," and so on. Terence who lived 159 years before Christ wrote "hence these tears," "the flower of youth," "I do not care one straw," "with presence of mind," "In fine, nothing is said now that has not been said before."

## Don'ts for the Reading Class. II.

By CAROLINE B. LE ROW.

Don't let pupils get the idea that the pronunciation of words is reading. An enormous amount of mischief is done in many schools in this direction. The new words proposed for each successive lesson must be learned, else no reading is possible, but the learning of these words should always be called by its right name,—pronouncing, or spelling, if that fashion of learning them is resorted to.

We are told by the dictionary that to read is "to go over, as words, and utter aloud," and while few pupils are presumably familiar with this definition, they seem to feel instinctively that reading is "only this and nothing more." The utterance of words is necessary, as a means to an end. There can be no reading without the words, but from the first too much care cannot be taken to impress upon the mind of the child that words are only tools, helps towards the expression of some idea. The thought to be expressed, even in the simplest sentence, should always be kept prominently before the child's mind, and the term "reading" should be used in a limited sense in the school-room, referring always to the expression of thought. Even then the child can scarcely fail to get an exaggerated idea of the importance of words as words. To him they are new, mysterious, powerful, as well as oftentimes difficult to manage, and imposing in proportion. If their importance is increased by directing attention to them beyond what is absolutely necessary, the effect will always be detrimental.

Devotion to dead words is the curse of our schools. The principal cause of the poor reading which is so common in all grades, is the close attention given merely to the words. In some classes it is considered the gravest possible fault to omit or misplace some little word, as an article or a preposition, the members of the class following the reader with no object in view except to catch him tripping on some unlucky syllable. While accuracy in the order and utterance of the words should be insisted upon and taught to be of great importance, the most of this accuracy should be worked for in the spelling and pronouncing exercises. In the actual reading this accuracy of utterance should be made of secondary importance, and the omission, misplacement, or even mispronunciation of a word be regarded as a far less vital matter than the omission of pause, inflection, or emphasis. To give the idea,—this should be the sole aim of everything called a "reading" lesson, even if with mechanical mistakes, for while the last can easily be corrected, it is a very hard matter to correct the lifeless and monotonous reading which results from the main attention being given to the mechanism. Don't allow pupils to pronounce articles, conjunctions, and prepositions as if they were important words. They should be slipped over with as slight an utterance as possible, as in ordinary, natural speech.

## Lessons in Primary Geography. VII.

By DR. ALBERT E. MALTBY, Slippery Rock, Pa.

(The teacher has taken from THE JOURNAL for April 9, 1892, the following poem on Bird Trades.)

The swallow is a mason,  
And underneath the eaves  
He builds a nest, and plasters it  
With mud and hay and leaves.

Of all the weavers that I know,  
The oriole is the best;  
High on the branches of the tree  
She hangs her cozy nest.

The woodpecker is hard at work—  
A carpenter is he—  
And you may hear him hammering  
His nest high up a tree.

Some little birds are miners:  
Some build upon the ground:  
And busy little tailors, too,  
Among the birds are found.—Ex.

The little poem written on a square of cardboard, is handed to some member of the class.

John may read the selection about the birds.  
(John Reads.) Even the birds have trades. A great emperor of Russia learned the trade of ship-building, that he might know when his ships were properly built. We should honor all men who work at trades. Let us name some of the trades. (Review.)

Some men do not earn all of their money by their trades alone. What does Mr. Coulter do? "He makes tin-ware and sells it but he buys stoves in the city and sells, to the farmers and village people."

Mr. Bingham keeps a hardware store. He sells axes, saws, and tools of all sorts used by carpenters, masons, miners, and

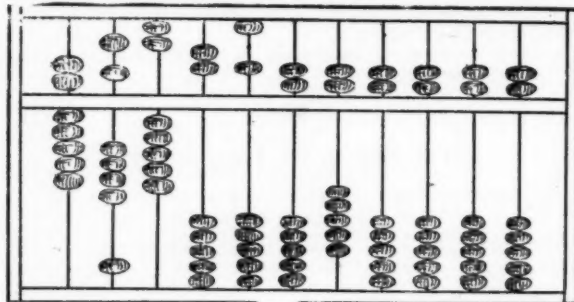
others. "The farmers buy their plows, harrows, hay-rakes, and other farm implements at his store." "Mowing machines." "Seed drills."

Mr. Kerr sells groceries. "Sugar, tea, coffee, flour, butter, lard, spices, and all such things."

Mr. Christy keeps dry-goods. "All kinds of cotton and woolen cloth and silk-goods," "Laces, ribbons, and buttons." But he keeps boots and shoes, too." Yes, in many country stores the stock is very wide.

Mrs. McCarnes keeps a millinery store. "Ladies' hats and bonnets," "Ribbons, collars, and laces."

"Woo Toy has the laundry." "He washes clothes." "He says, 'no payee, no washee.'" "When I take brother's collars and cuffs down there he gives me a little piece of yellow paper with such queer marks on it." "I lost the paper one day, and he wouldn't give me the clothes at first." "Wing Lee, who works for him, uses a queer little frame when he counts up what you owe him." "Little wooden buttons." (Fig. 1.) "I asked him to



(Fig. 1.)

show me how to use it, but he asked me whether I couldn't count." "But he showed me how to use the counting frame at last." "He said, 'Clos washee, number one, chop, chop, missey.'" That meant that he would wash the clothes well very soon. "What funny talk!" Some people call it Pigeon English. Only those who come from English ports in China talk that way. After they have been here a short time they talk much better.

一 1 yih  
二 2 urh  
三 3 san  
四 4 sze  
五 5 woo  
六 6 luh  
七 7 tseih  
八 8 pa  
九 9 kew  
十 10 shih

(Fig. 2.)

Woo Toy and Wing Lee write numbers in characters like these. (Fig. 2.) There are seven other figures used in writing numbers, but these are the first ten.

"These two men are yellow."

"Mr. Brooks keeps the barber shop. 'He is a black man.' 'A negro.' 'Barbers have for their work the shaving of beards, and cutting and dressing the hair.'"

Mr. Ramsey bakes bread and cakes. His place of BUSINESS is called the bakery.

Mr. Clutton has the drug-store, and Mrs. Hunt keeps a book store.

Mr. Martin carries on his business as a butcher, and keeps the meat shop.

So, also, we find the trade of the weaver represented by those men and women who work in the woolen-mill on Wolf Creek, and by Mrs. Carter who weaves carpets on an old-fashioned loom. "Rag-carpets." "Quite pretty carpets, too, with stripes of yellow and black, and red and gray."

Now we have some more kinds of trades to add to our list, and we can make this list of the PLACES OF BUSINESS of the

Merchants.

## PLACES OF BUSINESS.

The Grocery.	(Meat-shop)	The Bakery.
The Hardware	- - - - -	STORES.
Dry-goods	- - - - -	
Flour and Feed	- - - - -	
Millinery	- - - - -	
Drug	- - - - -	
Book	- - - - -	

These merchants buy GOODS in large quantities [WHOLESALE] and sell in smaller quantities to the users or consumers [RETAIL].

According to the degree of advancement of the children the teacher should here give exercises in the writing of common bills of goods, receipts, etc. There is nothing to prevent the lesson in arithmetic taking a geographical aspect and impressing a general truth.



John may pass to the board and add to the list men who work at trades. (The class names them.) "Weavers, butchers, laundrymen, tin-smiths, bakers, etc."  
"And barbers." Yes, Tommy.

## RACES OF MEN.

Here is another thought which we may express. All of these men are not of the same kind or race. "They differ in color." Also, in character and in speech. "The white people or race." "The yellow race." "The black race." "The red men or Indians."

My Teacher,	- - - -	White	} RACES OF MEN
Woo Toy,	- - - -	Yellow	
Mr. Brooks,	- - - -	Black	
The Indians,	- - - -	Red	
The Lecturer's Companion,	- - - -	Brown	

The minister who was lecturing brought with him a boy who was brown. "A Malay, that's what the minister called him."

Each child in the lower grade may be interested in making a series of mounted pictures of the principal races of men. Fold the closed envelope from the square of colored paper, according to the usual directions given in paper folding; then make the folds indicated in Fig 3. Have the children cut out the pictures found in

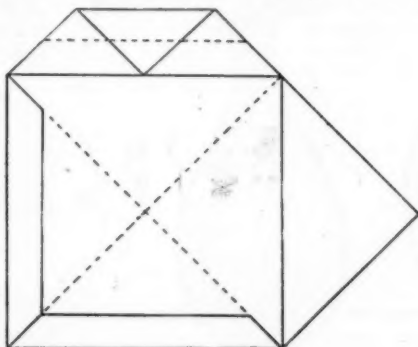


FIG. 3.

newspapers and periodicals and use them in making the little picture gallery.

Fig. 4 shows what a child will bring to show for the Chinese. Others have mounted pictures of Standing Bear, Sitting Bull, Fred Douglass, and Phillips Brooks.



FIG. 4.

At the close of each lesson the children must put away all bits of paper cast aside while cutting out the pictures. Gum tragacanth dissolved in water makes a very cheap and clean paste. A wooden toothpick is a neat little implement for use in applying the paste. With a little care there need be no necessity for soiling hands, desks, or clothing.

In connection with the lessons in this section the following may be used:

## OUTLINE FROM FRÖBEL'S "EDUCATION OF MAN."

Section 40. Mabel F. McCarnes, Teacher.

"I consider it to be the first and most important part of the education of children to lead them early to think."

40. Information that the child gains from the employments of those around him.

1. The child of the *Farmer*—

Learns to distinguish between the different grains, their uses, and the adaptability of the different soils to them.

2. Of the *Sportsman*—

To understand the aiming and care of a gun.

3. Of the *Blacksmith*—

The principle of the expansion of metals by heat.

4. Of the *Merchant*—

The principle of the balance; the characteristics of the seeds and other articles sold, and the difference between weight and gravity.

5. Of the *Fishermen*—

Some of the habits of fish.

6. Of the *Bark-Peeler* and *Tanner*—

How to tan leather.

7. Of the *Shoemaker*—

How to stretch leather.

8. Of the *Doctor*—

The simple laws of health.

9. Of the *Wagonmaker*—

The plan of axles, etc.

10. Of the *Printer*—

The reversion of the model, and the printing from the type.

11. Of the *Carpenter, Joiner, Cooper, etc.*—

An idea of the plane and chisel; of the preparation of iron, the use of different woods, and to distinguish between them.

## The Ways of Animals.

Children should be taught to observe the ways of animals and insects. The greatest naturalists are those who are the best observers. The natural world was put before man to educate him; it should be employed far more than books.

A teacher writes: "I got a box four by three feet in length and width, from a boy whose father was a merchant. In it some sand was placed and a wire netting was fitted for a cover. Then one of the boys brought a white rabbit and put it in. That was three months ago and the interest has not yet subsided; he is well fed, for one thing. On rainy days he is let out and what fun we have for ten minutes! What numbers of compositions have been written about him."

"This has led to keeping a scrap-book for stories about animals, and several hundred clippings have been accumulated. But the habit of observation has been wonderfully cultivated. One boy who is a carelessly dressed boy, not prepossessing in appearance, seems to be the head naturalist. He has no end of stories to tell about worms, snakes, frogs, etc. One day he told this about a squirrel. He had found in a hole a lot of beech nuts and took them away; in the place of these he put a handful of gravel stones. They were the winter stores of a red squirrel. In February he was passing near the spot and saw the snow had just been pawed away and that the stones were scattered around. He was so sorry for the little fellow that he took an ear of corn and hung it to the tree."

## A First Lesson in Mineralogy.

From a field lesson, the little ones returned, each with a stone in his hand. A group gathered at the reading board and answered the teacher's questions with:

My stone is hard.

I can mark mine with my thumb nail.

I can scrape dust from mine.

I can scratch my stone with a pin.

I can scratch mine with a nail.

I have a soft stone.

Lucy's stone will scratch mine.

Mine will not scratch Lucy's.

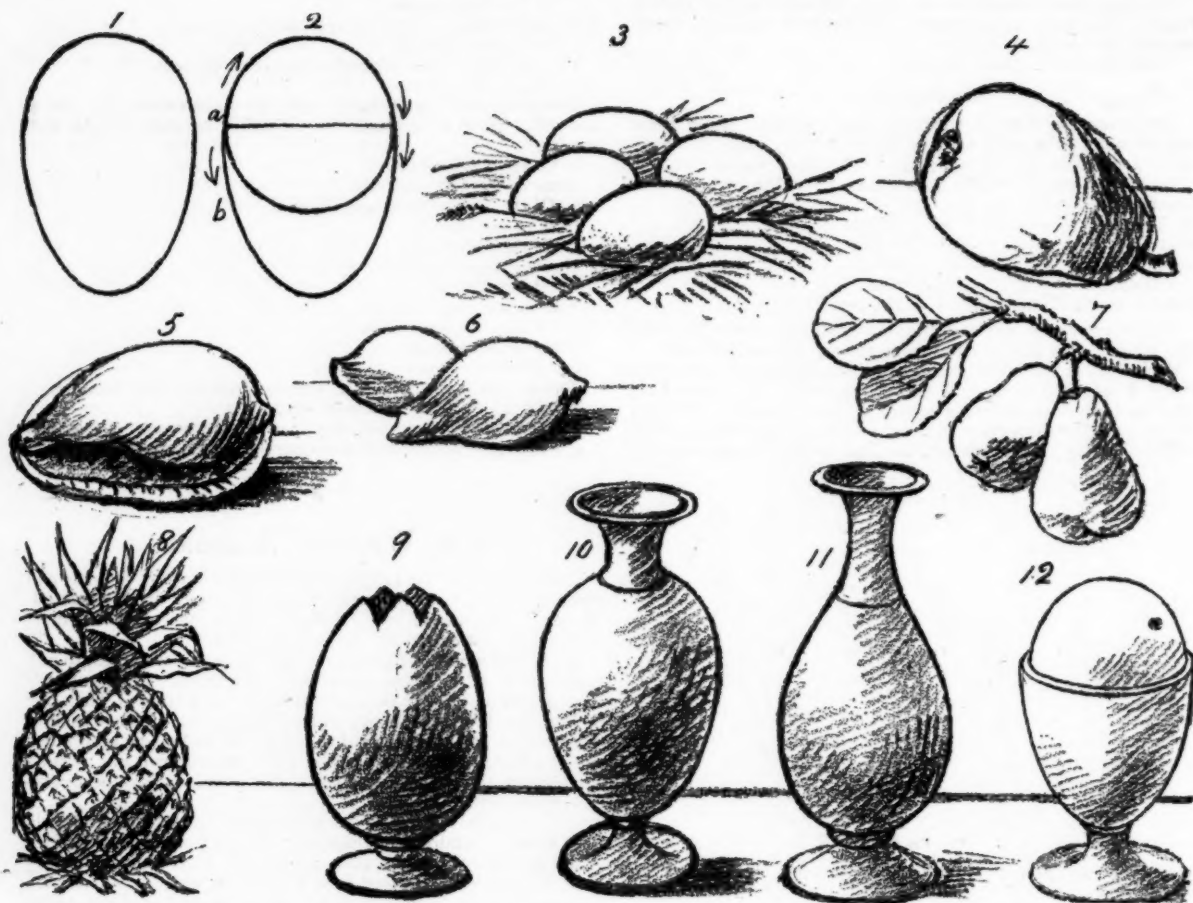
I found my stone by the lake.

I found mine on the road.

We have stones like this on our gravel walk.

The children's sentences were used for a reading lesson. Miss Griswold has her children deposit the stones used in such a lesson in a bottle of water, which some one shakes a little every day. The abrasion causes a sediment to fall which forms the subject of an interesting discussion by the children. They offer various theories to account for it. Some think that a little sand, that stuck to the stones when gathered, has been washed off by the water. To test this hypothesis, the stones are taken out, rubbed dry by the children and replaced in fresh water, the bottle too, having been carefully cleansed. Day after day the bottle is shaken, and again the sediment makes its appearance. Thus the children get their first knowledge of geological erosion from which step they advance to the study of the wearing away of mountains. And all the way up the pleasant hill of knowledge they talk and write about their observations and read to get lacking information, learning incidentally and with comparative ease what many children endanger their health to acquire.





## Blackboard Illustrative Sketching. VII.

By W. BERTHA HINTZ, New York Normal Art School.

### LESSON ON THE OVAL AND OBJECTS SHAPED LIKE THE OVOID.

The shape of the ovoid at the large end is half spherical; toward the smaller end it is ellipsoidal. The side view is an oval. (Fig. 1.)

*The Oval* (in parts).—(Figs. 1 and 2.) First draw the circle, then add the elliptical outline below the circle, as seen in (Fig. 2.) The circle must be drawn with a free, sweeping stroke, or by the even consecutive rotation practiced in previous exercises. The ellipse is a gradual change or lowering of the outline of the circle, and should be drawn with a motion consecutive to that of the circle.

If the elliptical outline is found to be imperfect, exercises 1 and 2 of Lesson V. should be practiced. It is so important that the subtle curve of the ellipse be thoroughly mastered, that the student is advised to practice this exercise often.

There are so many objects in nature and art that have elliptical outlines that it is best to master completely the drawing of the ellipse; and this not geometrically with reference to its diameters, but by freely developing its curves, independent of axis and procuring a perfect balance of parts.

Nearly all lines in shading used in this lesson are curves of the ellipse, which will, together with the objects drawn, afford sufficient examples for its application.

After having sufficiently reviewed the ellipse, practice the circle. Then begin the study of the oval. This must at first be practiced in parts; (a) the semi-circle, (b) the ellipse. The break should be made as indicated by the dividing line (Fig. 2). The steps are the following: Beginning at the left draw the semi-circle. Beginning at the same point at the left, draw the left side of the ellipse, continuing the stroke more than half way. From the right end of the semi-circle draw the right side of the ellipse, to balance the left. Study the oval and perfect it. Repeat this exercise until it can be done easily.

*The Oval* (with one continuous curve).—After a correct oval has been drawn by the previous process, practice the oval with a continuous movement, tracing upon the drawing, to get a feeling for the direction. When the oval is moderately well understood practice drawing it independently, that is, without reference to any previous drawing. It may be drawn first in a vertical position, then in horizontal and oblique positions.

### APPLICATION OF THE OVAL.

*The Eggs*.—(Fig. 3.) Draw several ovals in nearly horizontal positions, overlapping each other somewhat, and in such a manner that the eggs represented by them each have sufficient room to rest, without seeming to occupy the space of the other. Only the upper contours are visible; the lower being hidden in the hay. The lines of shading may be omitted on the board; the blackboard sketch requiring high light on the upper side of the eggs. This can be produced by one even stroke with the side of the crayon. The stroke must be made with sufficient pressure to be nearly white.

A few irregular, broken lines as indicated in the sketch will be sufficient to suggest the nest.

*The Pear*. (Fig. 4).—With free strokes draw a number of ovals of various proportions. Choose one of them and modify its shape to that of a pear. At the larger end the pear is flatter than the ovoid; the dried-up blossom is somewhat sunken, and the pear has irregularities of surface about the blossom, that may be represented by the various lines indicated in the sketch (Fig. 4).

The contour of the pear varies somewhat from that of the ovoid at the smaller end; as it tapers differently, and pears are not always symmetric at the base of the stem.

Study the insertion of the stem and represent this by expressive lines.

Represent the stem by short, irregularly broken lines.

Place the pear used as model in various positions, so that its contours correspond to the different ovals previously sketched, and modify each; being guided by the position of the model.

Practice some from memory. Whenever the shading is by a few parallel strokes that give an appearance of roundness or solidity to the form, it may also be so rendered in the blackboard sketch.

*The Shell*.—(Fig. 5.) Draw several ovals in a horizontal position and modify one to the contour of the shell, as seen in Fig. 5.

The shell is a cowry with only a slightly developed spire and beak. The specimen is lying on its side with the mouth and teeth-like serration in sight.

It is best to represent this only in outline without shading. The shade of this sketch should not altogether be followed by shading on the blackboard sketch in similar places, as this would reverse the light and shade on the lips and in the mouth of the shell.

The object should be studied and outlined as above directed; then, if the sketch is to be finished in light and shade, this should be added in the following places: on the highest rounded part of

the body of the shell; on the curved contour of the lips, and in irregular short strokes on the teeth-like serrations, and at the two ends.

Draw other ovals and change their outlines to suit the contours of shells in different positions. In Fig. 6 are two suggestions. Practice some to draw from memory.

**The Pineapple.**—(Fig. 8.) Draw the oval for a type of outline—then draw the divisions of the skin by irregular, slightly curving lines, nearly parallel and somewhat following the contour of the pineapple. These lines crossing each other as seen in the sketch, give the divisions of the skin. The leaves are sword-shaped, very stiff, and sharply serrated. This is not seen in the sketch, but should be studied from the specimen. The leaves should be drawn very freely with sharply defined outlines.

**The Vases.**—From the vases chosen best to illustrate the form of the ovoid, study their contours, and represent these as expressively and freely as possible. No guide or construction lines should be used. The contour of the body of the vase should be first studied that, being ovoid, it should be represented by a free sketch of the oval; the position and shape of the base is next to be studied and, as its outline is circular and foreshortened, it should be represented by an ellipse. It will do no harm to sketch a few trial ellipses before the correct one is obtained. The connection between the base and body of the vase should be studied from the model. The rim of the mouth of the vase is to be next studied. It is circular and foreshortened, therefore represented by an ellipse. The apparent width of this ellipse should be compared with the one at the base; and then sketched with freedom. The thickness of the vase should be represented by another ellipse within the outer. This thickness is foreshortened in the farther and near outline, but not in the right and left outline. Study the amount of foreshortening from the model. Observe the curves of the neck and represent first the left contour, then balance it with the right.

By following these steps in the study of the other vases, the habit of a correct study of these objects will be formed.

This principle of study is thoughtfully considered, as it insures an observation of the model, and a relating of its parts to type forms known, thus necessitating a knowledge of type forms as a basis of the study of their derivative.

**NOTE.**—Those teachers who have practically followed these lessons so far, are requested to write to Miss W. Bertha Hintz stating the degree of success obtained in this study, and other facts that may be of interest to the author.

## The Teaching of Drawing. VII.

By HEMAN P. SMITH, Principal of New York Normal Art School.

In our last article we gave the three divisions of art instruction for elementary schools; namely, geometric, decorative, and pictorial drawing, suggested the work for a general review at the beginning of the grammar course, and indicated as first work the *freehand drawing* of geometric figures, and their applications in the representation of objects based upon them. This should be followed by a drill in the use of the compasses, and the drawing of the same geometric figures with the ruler and compasses. The instrumental drawing should be taught with special reference to excellence in execution and too much stress cannot be laid on the beauty and fineness of finish of the lines.

Directions for the lessons should be given slowly, and distinctly and should be followed promptly by the students, but not hastily. In geometric drawing no new step can be taken unless the preceding has been done correctly, and if the lessons are hurried there is necessarily waste of time and inaccurate results.

Lines in geometric drawing are of varying strength. The first, or given line, from which the problem starts, should be of medium strength; the working lines, or those necessary to solve the problem, should be very fine; the result obtained should be of moderate strength, and of uniform depth of color.

**The Pencil.**—The drawing pencil should be harder than medium and finely pointed. The compass pencil should also be hard, and may be sharpened to a conical point, or a flat end with a sharp edge. In the latter case, care must be taken that the edge faces the pin point properly.

**The Rule and Ruling.**—The rule should have a perfect edge and be accurately divided. Test it before beginning to work, and avoid using for measurement the divisions that are not accurate. Great care should be taken in placing the rule. The points between which the line is to be drawn should not be covered by the rule, but a little allowance should be made for the space occupied by the pencil point. The light should always shine upon the edge against which the line is to be ruled. The pencil is held nearly upright, and the line is drawn from left to right.

**The Compasses.**—These should be held between the thumb and first finger, at the end above the rivet and hinge. In describing arcs they may be turned either to the left or right, as seems necessary. The needle point of the compasses should be fine. It may be sharpened with a file. No holes should be visible in the paper

after its use; if any appear, smooth the paper from the back with the thumb-nail.

It would not be practicable to give a series of exercises necessary to obtain a full knowledge of geometric drawing in these articles; we can, however, refer the student to a good series of problems in "White's New Course in Art Instruction."

In this course the practical necessary problems are used, and the processes in their execution are described in accompanying "Outlines for Teachers."

All geometric problems are not necessary for elementary study of art; only those that are, or can be immediately applied in either working drawing, the making of developments, or in design, will be found in this course.

We come now to the subject of working drawing.

**Character and Significance of Lines in Working Drawing.**

**Full,** clearly cut, and rather dark lines are used to represent visible contours and edges.

**Finely dashed lines** are used to represent invisible contours and edges.

**Finely dotted lines** are used to connect the different views.

**Dot-and-dash lines** are used as central lines upon which the drawings are balanced.

**Very fine full lines with arrow points** are used to indicate dimensions.

When the drawing is finished, the lines representing the object must be heavier than all other lines used, and should stand out in clear relief from them.

The outlines of the object may be drawn of uniform strength throughout, or they may be drawn light on the sides of the object which take the light, and dark on the opposite sides, thus giving an appearance of relief to the drawing.

### Descriptions of Working Drawings.

**The Hollow Cylinder.**—(See illustration c.)

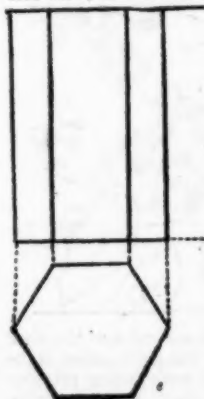
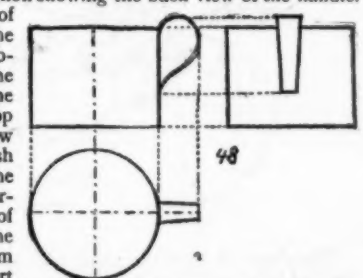
Draw a central dot-and-dash line.

Determine the shape of the plan or end view of the cylinder, a circle, and within it another circle, the two representing the thickness of the cylinder.

Draw the two concentric circles on the central line. Determine the shape of the elevation, or side view,—an oblong. Allow a short distance between the two views and mark off the height of the elevation, or length of the oblong, on the central line, by two points. Through the two points draw horizontal lines equal in length to the diameter of the plan. Complete the oblong elevation. Draw dashed lines to represent the inner invisible edges of the cylinder. Connect the plan and elevation by dotted lines.

**A Tin Dipper.**—The application of the cylinder. (See illustration d.) The illustration shows three views: (1) the plan, (2) the elevation showing the side view of the handle, (3) the elevation showing the back view of the handle.

Determine the shape of the top view and of the bottom view (in this object both views are the same, or circular). The illustration shows the top view in the plan. Draw a central dot-and-dash line and upon it draw the plan of the dipper, a circle, and the top view of the handle. Study the shape of the handle from the object. Allow a short distance between the two views and mark off the length of the side view, or elevation on the central line. Draw the two horizontal lines, for the upper and lower outlines of the dipper. Complete the oblong side view, and connect the two views by dotted lines. Observe the position, shape, size, or proportion of the handle, and draw its side view. Connect the top and side view of the handle by dotted lines. Turn the dipper with the handle exactly opposite the observer and represent it in this position. The body of the dipper is the same in this as in the preceding view; the shape and position of the handle should be studied from the object, then drawn. Connect the third view with the second by dotted lines.



**The Hexagonal Prism.**—(See illustration e.) Study the object as to proportion of parts, and determine the scale of the drawing. The shape of the end view is a regular hexagon; the side view consists



of three oblongs, the middle one of which is represented in its actual proportions; the two side ones are foreshortened. Describe a regular hexagon. (Draw a circle with a radius the length of the side of the hexagon, and mark off the length of the radius six times on the circumference of the circle. Connect the points to form the hexagon). This completes the end view, or plan.

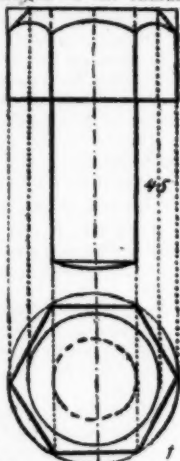
In making working drawings objects presenting foreshortened planes, as in example E, the plan or end view should be drawn first.

In the illustration it can be seen that the width of the foreshortened faces is obtained by connecting lines from the proper points in the plan.

Draw vertical lines from the angles of the hexagon in the plan, or end view, to represent the upright edges of the side view, or elevation. Determine the length of the side view; mark off its length on the vertical lines and draw horizontal lines to represent the upper and lower edges.

*The Bolt.*—(See illustration f.) This drawing should be studied together with the object, and the meaning of the lines will then be evident, without further explanation. The head of the bolt involves the same principle of foreshortened or oblique views that has been illustrated by the hexagonal prism; the rest of the bolt is an application of the cylinder.

This article can only give suggestions for the study of working drawing. Those who are interested to make a more exhaustive study of the subject are invited to correspond with the author of these articles.



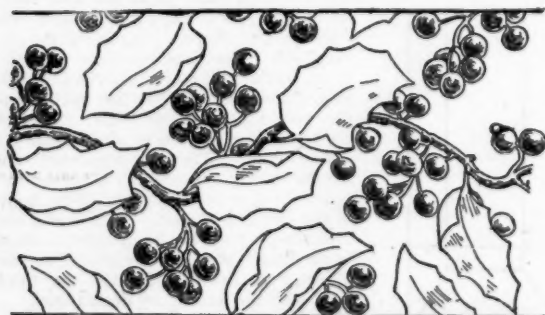
## Designing for Busy Work. I.

By A BROOKLYN TEACHER.

The grade to which the following work is suited must be decided by the teacher. It will depend on the drawing system in operation,



The plan is to have the pupil take some natural object, as a sprig of holly, and draw it from nature. Then he is to repeat it so as to produce a design for a border.



The idea is simple, but the chief interest and value of the work will lie in its application. A box, made by the pupil, either in the manual training class, at home, or for busy work during previous school hours devoted to silent occupations, may receive its finish

in the form of a decoration thus made. A border of holly may run around the sides of the box or edge the top, or both, the original spray being added as a central decoration for the lid. The holly may be either drawn or painted. The box may be either of wood or cardboard.

Satin banners, tidies, curtains, table-covers, lamp-shades,—an infinite variety of objects of use and ornament, may be thus tastefully decorated by the girls and boys. Or the design may be drawn in outline only and used as an embroidery pattern.

This work is highly educative and widely adaptable to school needs. Objects made at home for birthday gifts may be brought to school for the artistic finishing touch. The teacher may select the subject whose repetition is to make the design and the pupils may select each his own object to which it may be applied. Or the class exercise may be the making of a box or other article, and the pupils may be set a-hunting for some suitable unit of design for decoration. The varied and beautiful results will afford a high order of pleasure to the children, inducing great interest in their own and one another's work. This sort of work stimulates activities of great social and domestic value and can be introduced into the school-room without great sacrifice of time, particularly if the unit of design be some object under regular study by the class. Pupils will pursue at home the decorative idea, finding much profitable amusement and beautifying many an ugly object. It is here, in its relation to the home, that the school should seek and find its great moral strength.

## Live Lessons in Writing.

From class work of LYMAN D. SMITH, Hartford, Conn.,

Author of *Appletons' Standard Penmanship*, *Appletons' Manual of Penmanship for Dept. Teachers*, and "*Movement Course*."

### A TALK ABOUT THE COPY.

Much is gained by having a thorough preliminary talk about the lesson. Present the letters as *wholes*, in order not to destroy the *appeal to the eye* or break up the *unity of movement*. Make the pupil acquainted with his models; helping him to see them—for children often look without seeing—teaching them to *look and see*; brightening up the mind-picture, assisting them to form good ideals of the letters. We do this by calling attention to the letter as a whole. Next, by finding the parts of the letters, and by knowing the lines that build up the parts; this is analysis. Next, by seeing how the lines build up the parts, and how the parts build up the letters; this is synthesis. Next by learning the relation of the parts to each other and the relation of the letters to each other in words; this is the combining process of handwriting.

THE COLLOQUIAL METHOD makes the strongest appeal to the class. It secures and holds their attention, arouses an interest, concentrates their thought upon special points, saving the teacher much individual labor, since dealing with the entire class as a whole, and bringing out and illustrating on the board faults common to all, is sure to reach every pupil. Always aim to teach the pupils to see something for themselves in the letters. Draw out from them all you can in the blackboard illustrations, trying to have them exercise their own minds—to think for themselves—and think out further every succeeding lesson. The best work lies right along the line of the pupils' growth and development; consequently, always aim for that line. Illustrate clearly a few points at a time, and try to reach every member of the class. It will be easy to hold them when you once establish a good working basis, and know just what to do yourself, just what you wish the pupils to do, and just what is being accomplished each lesson. The idea is not the writing of a page in the copy-book, or filling the penmanship period, but engaging their best effort, and carrying them on a little further each lesson. They must be interested, and get into the spirit of the work to do their best. Put good specimens of chalk work and ink work before them to get them into a hungry feeling to do likewise; to be able to execute good forms with *free movement*, which alone can bring the smooth, graceful lines of writing.

Have as little friction as possible in handling the class. A voice that irritates and rasps the pupils, or a manner that does not encourage and lead them on, is a great hindrance to progress in this as in any other branch of instruction.

This same philosophy of teaching should be carried into all the grades, adapting the working out to the ages of the pupils whom you are teaching. I am confident of the success of any teacher who works on this plan faithfully.

### Natural Method.

Order of a Lesson { Mind pictures.  
Movement drills.  
Copy-book work.

*A talk about the letters.*—To arouse mental activity.

*A movement drill.*—To train the muscles, getting strictures out of the hand and arm, and incidentally acquiring knowledge of



form by weaving the letters themselves into the movement drills.  
*Copy-book work.*—To combine the play of mind and muscular action in getting good forms and fluent execution; gathering up the results of the drills.

*The outcome.*—Natural, normally-spaced writing.

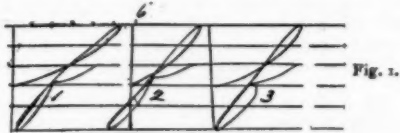


Fig. 1.

#### A LESSON GIVEN IN AN INTERMEDIATE GRADE.

**Blackboard Talk.**—What is your lesson to be to-day, pupils? "Small f," answers a chorus of voices. Who can tell me something about this letter? Nora. "Small f is the longest letter in the small alphabet." What else can you say? "It has for its upper part the regular 'whip lash' loop, and a loop-fold extending two spaces below the base line." Very good. What do you mean by base line, Nora? "The line you write on." When does this loop-fold close in coming up on the right side of the letter? "At base line." Suppose you wrote *without* a base line, how would you know when to let this fold close or touch the long down stroke? "It would touch or close on a level with the starting point of the letter." Very good. You have remembered what you learned about this letter in a lower grade. Suppose you wrote the word "of" without a base line; when would the loop fold close in that case? "It would close on a level with the bottom of the small o." (These points are illustrated on the board by the teacher.)

Quickly drawing six horizontal lines on the board, free hand, two inches apart, four to six feet in length, with a vertical line at the left, I write the f as shown in Fig. 1, and also the word "of" at the right of a second vertical. (Fig. 1.) Drawing a third vertical, I call for volunteers to write at the board. All hands are up eager to come. The dept. teacher is watching with keen interest the work in hand. At my request she asks Harry to try his hand at the board writing. At the right of the third vertical, Harry writes an f, about as shown in No. 1, fig. 2, and then criticisms are called for.

Who can say something about Harry's f?

**Lena.**—"He spoiled it by running toward dot 6 too far before straightening up his first stroke, making the loop lean over too much. This also makes the loop-fold come too far away from the vertical line, but it closes at the base-line correctly." That is right. Who is the next writer? Teacher nods to Michael and he tries his hand at the right of a fourth vertical. Who can say

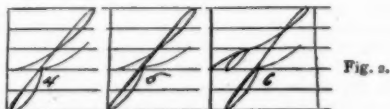


Fig. 2.

something about Michael's f? (No. 2, fig. 1), Jack: "He made both loops too large and ran across the vertical line with the lower one because he didn't *begin* the f a little away from the vertical line." Another vertical is drawn and Jack is called to the board and makes No. 3. Who can criticize Jack's f?

**Fred.** "He made the upper loop just right but the lower loop is bad." Why so? "It keeps getting wider from the lower end to the base line; it ought to be narrowed gradually from the center to the base-line." That is just the fault exactly, Fred. When your grandmother knits stockings, you will see her "narrow it off" as she comes toward the end of the foot part of it. We narrow the loop fold of f the same way.

Another vertical is drawn and Susie comes to the board and writes No. 4. They all agree that Susie's f is the best so far, but that she shaded a little too *late*, bringing it down into the turn, which should never be done. (Fig. 3.)

No. 5 is written by Elsie, and pronounced good excepting that she shaded too *soon*: the shade, a little, should be all below base line.

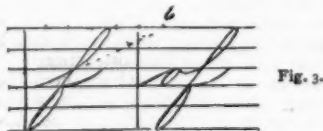


Fig. 3.

**Emil** comes and writes "of" and Lucy thinks the lower loop good, but that the upper loop was spoiled by failure to let the line from o sag sufficiently, saying that the line from o to any upper loop must *drop* to get loop enough for the following letter.

All this has taken from six to ten minutes. The ideas of the form, the slant, the curvature have all been brought out, and the next thing in order is a

#### MOVEMENT DRILL.

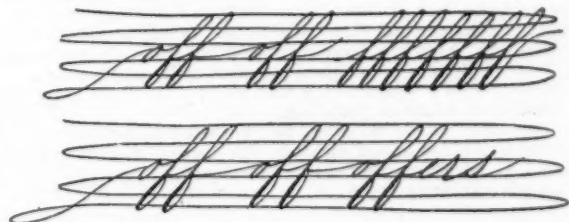
As the f is not adapted to long sweeps from letter to letter the word "of" is given which is so adapted. Just here it is well to say that movement drills that bear upon a given letter should include the letters as much as possible, and not simple strokes, that involve no form but simply the movement. For example: making a group of ten f's without the raising the pen, is better than a series of thirty lines, fifteen up-strokes, fifteen down-strokes, meeting at top and bottom in very sharp angles.

If movement books are used turn to the page containing the drill for f and write it before writing the f copy in the regular No. If no movement books are at hand, take loose slips 5 by 8 inches, and write as shown in fig. 4, keeping time to a metronome set at 120, at first, or a count, thus:—"Slide, 1, 2—1, 2, 3, slide 1, 2,—1, 2, 3—repeated till the four groups are written, and at least three lines of the five lines shown before stopping to get ink. It often happens that the clock in the school-room can be used as a metronome. The movement is usually at 120 ticks to the minute and sets the rate of speed for a time, at least, and insures a very quiet room. Some clocks, however, don't tick loud enough to be heard, besides the speed must be quickened after some practice to 140, 160, 180, which can only be done by using the metronome as described in *Appletons' Manual of Penmanship* which every one who teaches writing can use to great benefit



Fig. 4.

Continue this drill ten minutes, writing, and cross-writing one side of the sheet. Keep the class together in the work. Don't allow the sheet to be turned for writing on the other side till all turn it. If your pupils have been well drilled from the lower grades up, they should be able at 12 years to write such exercises as shown in figs. 5 and 6 on the second side of the sheet. Always write these drills across the shorter dimension first—then cross-write, paying no attention to any ruled lines on the sheet, at the first writing. Pupils need practice in writing *without* a base line now and then.



Figs. 5 and 6.

If figs. 5 and 6 are considered too difficult, stick to fig. 4. It is a good drill. The word may be made, "off" after awhile and linked the same way, then "offer." This plan gives practice in the long lateral sweeps, and also in close spacing, at the same time while writing the words. This is the end aimed at: to gain the power to carry the pen from letter to letter, without raising, in close spaced writing. The long sweeps must precede, however, and much practice be given, gradually lessening the long strokes till normal spacing is reached and the hand is carried instinctively from letter to letter in business and epistolary writing.

**NOTE.** No movement drills or any kind of writing should ever be given that spreads the letters in a word. Make wide spacing (in drills) between your words—but maintain the proper spacing of the letters in that word. This advice is needed by many who do not know how to combat a new-fangled idea in spacing, and which is ruinous to young pupils, or to pupils of any age. The idea in question is to teach open spacing in words—making the word "man" for instance, as long as "maintain" ought to be, or the letters from one half to three quarters of an inch apart. The idea is fallacious.

The drill as shown in figs. 4, 5 and 6, well practiced, prepare the pupils for their regular books, and thus on to their daily language work. The copy-book practice emphasizes the form, and sets the correct style of spacing of letters in words, and the spacing between words. They are necessary to the pupils, and to the vast majority of dept. teachers who are not skilled writers, and unable to place handsome models on the board. It would be a marvel to find a school of 12 to 18 departments where every teacher could write handsomely on the board, or set the models for the pupils to follow. These models should set a high standard for the pupils in every grade. The copy-book does this.

## Elementary Arithmetic. VI.

FIRST AND SECOND YEARS.

By E. M. R., Springfield, Mass.

## First Year.

Class-room exercise with the lowest class of little ones, who have just finished *five*. The subject is the square inch. The material needed is square inches of wood, paper, or cloth; half-inch oblongs; colored crayon; inch sticks; solids having inch-square faces, as the inch cube, or half-inch cube.

Look at this face of the little cube. What shape is it?

Annie.—It is square.

Measure with the inch stick to find how long this square is.

Joe.—The square is an inch long.

Find another square that is an inch long and tell me about it.

Harry.—This paper square is an inch long.

Mary.—This square of cloth is an inch long.

James.—This square of wood is an inch long.

Each square that you have measured is a *square inch*.

Pass your finger over a square inch of paper and tell me about it.

Mary.—This is a square inch of paper.

Of wood, Nanny.

Nanny.—This is a square inch of wood.

Each color a square inch of paper with one of these pencil crayons.

Whose squares are too large? Whose too small? Try at the blackboard with this colored crayon. What do you show me Harry?

Harry.—I show you a square inch.

How large is the face of this cube?

Helen.—It is a square inch.

The face of this tablet?

Clara.—The face of the tablet is a square inch.

The face of this piece of silk?

Annie.—The silk is an inch square.

How much of the table does the silk cover?

May.—It covers a square inch of the table.

You may cover this strip of paper with the inch tablets and tell how many square inches are in this surface of the paper.

John.—There are three square inches in the surface of the paper.

This strip of paper.

Bessie.—There are five square inches in this strip of paper.

This square of paper.

Nellie.—There are four square inches in that square of paper.

How many square inches is this colored surface of the blackboard? How many square inches of red paper have I pasted on this cardboard? Each take one of these sheets of paper and fill in the space that is outlined by pasting on these squares of colored paper. Tell how large the space is that you have pasted over. Look at this face of this block. Find on the table a piece of paper just the size and shape of this face (a half inch cut from side to side.) Find how many such pieces will make a square inch.

Jennie.—It takes two of these papers to make a square inch.

What part of a square inch is each piece.

Annie.—It is half a square inch.

How many square inches will four of these pieces equal?

Find how many square inches in this narrow strip of paper. ( $5'' \times \frac{1}{2}''$ ). Measure with the half inch papers.

In this surface, ( $3'' \times \frac{1}{2}''$ ).

In this surface, ( $1\frac{1}{2}'' \times \frac{1}{2}''$ ).

In this surface, ( $2\frac{1}{2}'' \times \frac{1}{2}''$ ).

In this surface, ( $3'' \times 1\frac{1}{2}''$ ).

NOTE.—In this introduction to finding the area of surfaces, avoid any action or question that will give the impression that the *outline* is the square inch. For which reason do not have a square outlined by inch sticks. It is better even to measure across the middle of a square inch to ascertain the length than to measure a side, so apt is the pupil to think of the *perimeter* when dealing with square measure rather than the surface. Avoid the direction to "*hold up*" a square of paper, a square of velvet," etc. Such language tends to leave the impression that the plinth of cloth or paper or wood is the square inch, and one teacher went so far in my hearing as to direct the children to show both faces of the square inch, having become confused by her own language.

It is awkward and stilted to adhere altogether to the term surface, when finding surface measurement and it can be dropped when the idea is clear that it is the *surface* that is being measured, not the *solid* of paper or wood.

Follow the drill upon the square inch with group No. 3 by lessons upon the quart measure, the pint measure, and the number of pints in a quart. Then continue the number lessons by teaching the number *six*.

Group No 2, has not yet finished the work with fourths as outlined in the last paper. Follow the teaching of fourths by the number *eight*.

Following are some problems which are in order for this group. I have some remnants of paper; two whole sheets, one-fourth

of a sheet, one-half of a sheet, and three-fourths of a sheet. How much have I altogether?

John had half an orange. He gave me half of what he had. What part of the orange did he give me?

Ned had six and a half yards of twine in his pocket. He used half of it to mend his cart. What did he have left?

I spent one cent for a pencil, two cents for a book, and bought two 2-cent postage stamps. What did I spend?

This pail holds three quarts and a half. How many pints does it hold?

How much ribbon will it take to bind a book mark that is two and a half inches long and one inch wide?

How many square inches are in the surface of an inch cube?

How many square inches are in the surface of two half-inch cubes?

I have a little box that is one and a half inches long, one inch wide and one inch high. How much satin will it take to line it?

Group No. 1, has just finished *thirds* and will begin the number *ten* on Monday. (February is meant, not March.)

Before drilling upon the facts in ten, lead the pupils to observe the new number attentively, to see how it compares with the last number studied, and with other known numbers.

Find how many twos in it; how many threes, fours, fives.

Then drill by means of illustrations and original problems given by the children, upon the most difficult facts in ten chiefly,  $10-2$ ,  $10-8$ ,  $10-2$ ,  $5 \times 2$ ,  $10-3$ ,  $10-7$ ,  $7+3$ ,  $10-4$ ,  $10-6$ ,  $6+4$ .

In teaching any new truth do not omit test questions upon what has gone before. In no other way will the effort of the year show results. With children *recency* is the essential element in remembering.

## Second Year.

By steady steps Group No. 2 in this grade has studied numbers to eighteen; has learned to work with figures and other signs, as,  $+$ ,  $-$ ,  $\times$ ,  $\div$ ,  $=$ ; has taken the new fractions one-fifth, one-eighth, and one-sixth; the measures, square foot, square yard, and the number of square feet in a square yard; the ounce, the pound and the number of ounces in a pound; the peck, and number of quarts in a peck; and mensuration with squares, oblongs, and triangles.

Present the number eighteen as made up of one ten and eight more. Lead the children to see the most important facts connected with the number. Those which must be learned "by heart," as the number of twos in eighteen, the number of threes, the number of sixes, the number of nines.  $\frac{1}{3}$  of 18,  $\frac{1}{4}$  of 18,  $\frac{1}{5}$  of 18. Give much practice upon these facts in their order so that they may be easily recalled when needed. Incidentally count by twos to the number, by threes, by sixes.

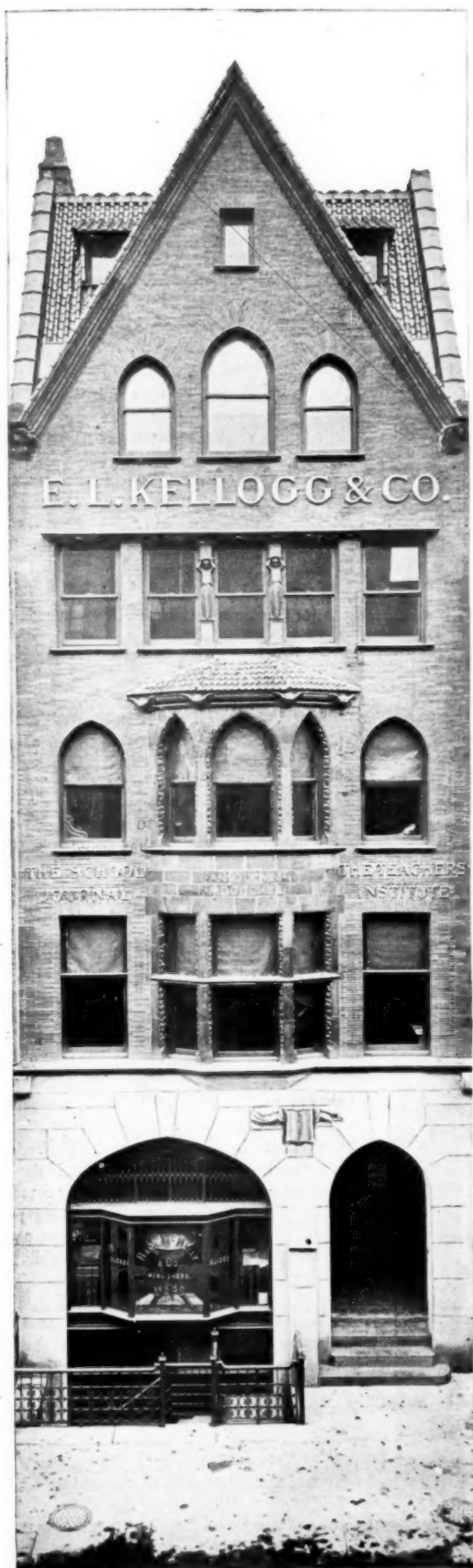
The next work will be with *ninths*. In presenting the subject, see that each pupil has something which he can himself divide into nine equal parts. If the objects used are paper disks it is well for the teacher to pencil them off into ninths before class time. Then the children can do the cutting without error. Even though the fraction has never been seen nor talked about the children are ready with its name from their knowledge of other fractional units. Begin then almost immediately with an analysis of the unit divided into ninths to find that,  $\frac{1}{9} = \frac{1}{9}$ ,  $\frac{2}{9} = \frac{2}{9}$ ,  $1 - \frac{1}{9} = \frac{8}{9}$ .

$1 - \frac{8}{9} = \frac{1}{9}$ ,  $\frac{1}{9} + \frac{1}{9} = \frac{2}{9}$ ,  $1 + \frac{1}{9} = 9$ ,  $9 \times \frac{1}{9} = 1$ ,  $1 - \frac{7}{9} = \frac{2}{9}$ ,  $1 - \frac{8}{9} = \frac{1}{9}$ ,  $\frac{1}{9} + \frac{2}{9} = 1$ ,  $1 - \frac{4}{9} = \frac{5}{9}$ ,  $1 - \frac{5}{9} = \frac{4}{9}$ ,  $\frac{4}{9} + \frac{5}{9} = 1$ ,  $\frac{8}{9} - \frac{1}{9} = \frac{7}{9}$ ,  $\frac{7}{9} + \frac{1}{9} = \frac{8}{9}$ ,  $\frac{8}{9} + \frac{1}{9} = 1$ ,  $8 \times \frac{1}{9} = \frac{8}{9}$ ,  $\frac{1}{9}$  of  $\frac{8}{9} = \frac{8}{81}$ ,  $\frac{8}{9} - \frac{8}{9} = 0$ ,  $\frac{8}{9} - \frac{7}{9} = \frac{1}{9}$ ,  $\frac{8}{9} + \frac{8}{9} = 4$ ,  $4 \times \frac{2}{9} = \frac{8}{9}$ ,  $\frac{1}{9}$  of  $\frac{8}{9} = \frac{8}{81}$ ,  $\frac{8}{9} - \frac{8}{9} = 0$ ,  $\frac{5}{9} + \frac{4}{9} = 1$ ,  $\frac{8}{9} - \frac{4}{9} = \frac{4}{9}$ ,  $\frac{4}{9} + \frac{4}{9} = \frac{8}{9}$ ,  $\frac{8}{9} + \frac{8}{9} = 2$ ,  $2 \times \frac{4}{9} = \frac{8}{9}$ ,  $\frac{1}{9}$  of  $\frac{8}{9} = \frac{8}{81}$ ,  $\frac{7}{9} - \frac{1}{9} = \frac{6}{9}$ ,  $\frac{7}{9} + \frac{1}{9} = \frac{8}{9}$ ,  $\frac{7}{9} + \frac{1}{9} = 7$ ,  $7 \times \frac{1}{9} = \frac{7}{9}$ ,  $\frac{7}{9} - \frac{6}{9} = \frac{1}{9}$ ,  $\frac{7}{9} - \frac{5}{9} = \frac{2}{9}$ ,  $\frac{6}{9} + \frac{2}{9} = \frac{8}{9}$ ,  $\frac{7}{9} - \frac{4}{9} = \frac{3}{9}$ ,  $\frac{7}{9} - \frac{3}{9} = \frac{4}{9}$ ,  $\frac{6}{9} + \frac{2}{9} = \frac{8}{9}$ ,  $\frac{5}{9} + \frac{3}{9} = \frac{8}{9}$ ,  $\frac{4}{9} + \frac{4}{9} = \frac{8}{9}$ ,  $\frac{3}{9} + \frac{5}{9} = 1$ ,  $\frac{2}{9} + \frac{6}{9} = 1$ ,  $\frac{1}{9} + \frac{8}{9} = 1$ ,  $6 \times \frac{1}{9} = \frac{6}{9}$ ,  $\frac{1}{9}$  of  $\frac{8}{9} = \frac{8}{81}$ ,  $\frac{8}{9} - \frac{8}{9} = 0$ ,  $\frac{4}{9} + \frac{4}{9} = \frac{8}{9}$ ,  $\frac{3}{9} + \frac{5}{9} = 1$ ,  $3 \times \frac{2}{9} = \frac{6}{9}$ ,  $\frac{1}{9}$  of  $\frac{8}{9} = \frac{8}{81}$ ,  $\frac{8}{9} - \frac{8}{9} = 0$ ,  $\frac{5}{9} - \frac{4}{9} = \frac{1}{9}$ ,  $\frac{1}{9} + \frac{8}{9} = 1$ ,  $\frac{4}{9} - \frac{3}{9} = \frac{1}{9}$ ,  $\frac{1}{9} + \frac{1}{9} = \frac{2}{9}$ ,  $4 \times \frac{1}{9} = \frac{4}{9}$ ,  $\frac{1}{9}$  of  $\frac{8}{9} = \frac{8}{81}$ ,  $\frac{4}{9} - \frac{2}{9} = \frac{2}{9}$ ,  $\frac{2}{9} + \frac{2}{9} = \frac{4}{9}$ ,  $\frac{4}{9} - \frac{2}{9} = \frac{2}{9}$ ,  $2 \times \frac{2}{9} = \frac{4}{9}$ ,  $\frac{1}{9}$  of  $\frac{8}{9} = \frac{8}{81}$ ,  $\frac{1}{9} - \frac{1}{9} = 0$ ,  $\frac{1}{9} - \frac{1}{9} = 0$ ,  $\frac{3}{9} + \frac{3}{9} = \frac{6}{9}$ ,  $\frac{3}{9} + \frac{3}{9} = 2$ ,  $2 \times \frac{3}{9} = \frac{6}{9}$ ,  $\frac{1}{9}$  of  $\frac{8}{9} = \frac{8}{81}$ .

Not all of these facts need equal drill. I find it most convenient to put test questions upon the easiest facts after the analysis has been made to ascertain what knowledge of the subject has been gained by observing ninths up to this point. Generally it will be found that all additions and subtractions involving no reduction are known, as well as multiplications and divisions where  $\frac{1}{9}$  is used. All others must receive patient and vivid drill to fix them in the mind. It has struck me as remarkable that the children, in order to add or subtract, do not appear to make reductions to a common denominator as we older people do, but that they hold a visual impression of  $\frac{3}{9} + \frac{2}{9}$ , for instance, and do not consciously calculate it. Certainly after the subject has been well taught there is no more hesitancy in determining the result when the fractions have different denominators as  $\frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{9}$  than when they have a common denominator as  $\frac{2}{9} - \frac{1}{9}$ .

(Continued on page 231.)





No. 61 East Ninth Street, (near Broadway) New York.

1870-1893.

## THE CENTRAL IDEA.

**T**HE SCHOOL JOURNAL, founded in 1870, was the first weekly paper devoted to education. In 1874 it came under the direction of the present editor and the attempt was made to identify it with progress in education; an attempt that has been followed persistently. The knowledge and experience gained by spending twenty-five years in school-rooms of all kinds, institutes, and normal schools were brought to bear to diffuse a larger conception of the functions of the teacher. Making this the main object of publishing THE JOURNAL a recompense is found in witnessing the wonderful advancement all along the educational line that has set in.

It was the fixed opinion of the best thinkers upon education as far back as 1840 that no advancement could be made without advancing the teacher; this led to the establishment of normal schools. The editor undertook the task of employing the pages of THE JOURNAL as a substitute for a normal school training. He saw there were numerous defects in the school system, especially those arising from its connection with political machinery, yet he believed the true mode of improving the schools was in enlarging the teacher's conception of the mighty task of Teaching.

The results of nearly twenty years' devotion to this one thing are full of encouragement; reading circles, summer educational schools, schools of pedagogy, books on educational subjects are signs of a great educational renovation that has been going on; and very much of the great movement for progress can be traced to THE JOURNAL as an inspiring cause. THE JOURNAL has earnestly supported throughout its first struggle for recognition each in turn of the modern innovations that have helped to place educational practice on a true foundation of principle, relinquishing its most strenuous devotion only when the subject in question seemed fairly secure of introduction and some younger and equally worthy claimant in the line of educational progress demanded special championship. Normal training was thus urged when the general sentiment towards this question was one of indifference or opposition; manual training when the majority laughed at it, etc. So unabated was the urgent plea that the work of the school-room be lifted out of the treadmill of routine it had become, it seemed at times that the charge of being an educational "crank" might justly be laid at the editor's doors; but there were those, especially in the West, who in the depressed days of education insisted that the demand for progress should not cease. When the history of education in this country is written, then, Oh, helpful West, will be seen how much is due to you as an inspiring cause!

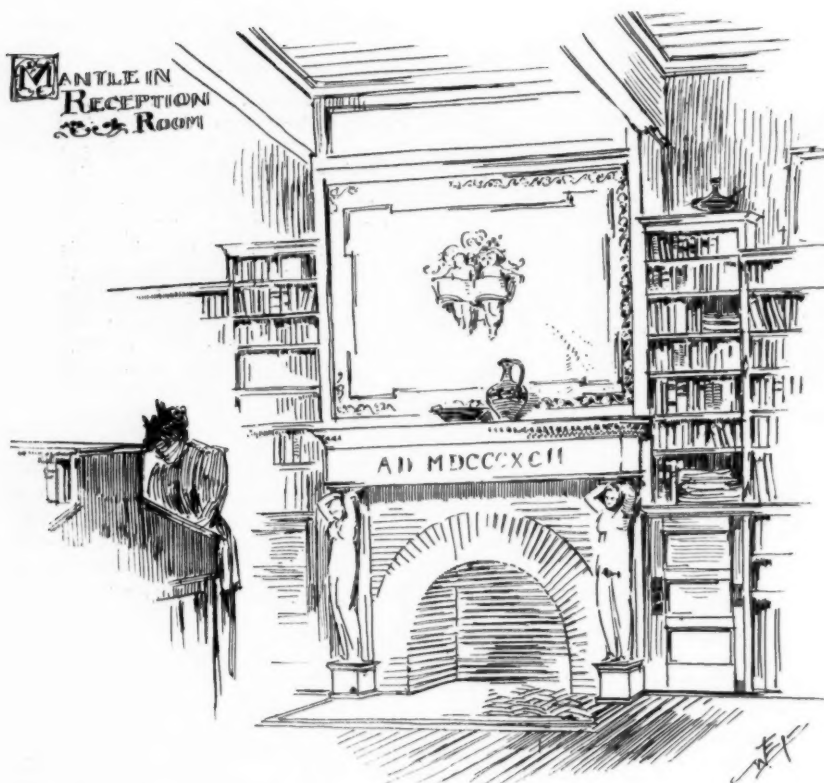
## STANDING FOR HIGH IDEALS.

It was found there were men and women scattered over the length and breadth of the land who desired to do a work in accordance with the highest ideals of Teaching. It became a practical end to search for these as subscribers; for all these years the publishers have made constant efforts to come into relation with those who were desirous of advancing the character of the teacher's work, and to consolidate this desire into action. THE JOURNAL, after a time, began to be looked upon as a paper sure to be found in the hands of men and women having *ideas concerning education*. It thus came into favor with advertisers; they see it is read with great interest.

## OTHER PUBLICATIONS FOUND NECESSARY.

The primary intention was simply to publish a weekly paper devoted to educational advancement; but the request for more expanded statements led to the publication of a monthly paper, THE TEACHERS' INSTITUTE, and papers and several books relating to teaching, and thus "Parker's Talks on Teaching," "The Quincy Methods," "Payne's Lectures," and many others came out until a very important list has been published. The monthly INSTITUTE which, like THE JOURNAL, was the first departure in its own line, has attained, on account of its cheapness as compared with the weekly JOURNAL, a wide circulation—nearly 50,000. Together these two papers are probably read by *one-half* of the teachers of the country, 400,000 in number.

The publication of books and school-room helps being under-



taken, it was found needful to have larger quarters and in 1885 the entire building No. 25 Clinton Place was secured. This has been a grand rallying point for educators, but in a few years it proved too small and the idea of erecting a building was entertained. The premises No. 61 East 9th street were purchased a year ago and during last year a handsome building was erected and is now occupied by the firm.

#### AN EDUCATIONAL HEADQUARTERS.

The new building will furnish a convenient place where the educational work that has arisen may be carried on. As these eighteen years have rolled along there have gathered around *THE JOURNAL* many devoted friends of education. Comprehending and appreciating the efforts for higher and nobler forms of education they have from distant points sent needed words of cheer; they have contributed suggestions founded on their own school-room experience. To these men and women, to all who have aided in any way the solution of the great problem of enlarging the practical conception of teaching, the most sincere and heartfelt thanks are rendered. Friends of Education, the work is but begun! Continue to think, to labor and to write; continue to search for better ideas than we possess as yet concerning this noblest of all undertakings for the good of humanity.

#### A GREETING TO EDUCATORS.

The publishers extend a cordial hand to all educational laborers; the offices of *THE JOURNAL* will continue to be an educational exchange in which teachers from the East, West, North and South may meet fraternally and find enjoyment and aid in examining a large assortment of publications and apparatus relating to the important work of education. On Saturday mornings "Kellogg's" has been a favorite point for teachers within easy reach of the metropolis; a broader hospitality is now extended because there is more room; come and subscribe, and buy; come, anyhow—you are equally welcome in either case.



A CARYATIDE IN TERRA COTTA.  
(Front of 4th Story.)

#### THE NEW BUILDING

is in many respect an ideal one for a publishing house. The location is in the centre of the publishing district and within two blocks or less, of the American Book Co., Effingham Maynard & Co., University Publishing Co., John Wiley & Sons, Armstrong & Co., etc.

The Cooper Union, Bible House, and Stewart's, Daniell's, and McCreery's well known dry goods stores are but a step away, and the Broadway, 8th St., University Place, 4th and 3rd Ave. horse cars and the elevated railroad at 9th St. and 3rd Ave., are within easy access to it.

The building is 26 x 92 feet on the ground, is substantially built of stone, brick, and terra cotta, and is six stories high. The front of basement and first story is Indiana limestone of a light grey buff tone; above this Perth Amboy mottled brick and terra cotta of a rich brown color is used. The front roof is covered with brown tiles, thus securing a harmony of colors. Each floor and stair case hall is well lighted.

#### THE MAIN OFFICES

are on the second floor reached by stair case or electric elevator. The

store occupies a large handsome room, 60 feet long, with an open fire-place of tasteful design nearly opposite the entrance door (see sketch). The walls are covered with well arranged shelves for the large stock of educational books and teachers' helps, recitation and dialogue books, etc., constantly kept on hand. Several large tables are also full.

On this floor also the large daily mail is opened, which, in busy times, often numbers a thousand letters a day; it is recorded, classified, and sent to the 5th floor for further attention.

#### THE GENERAL MANAGEMENT.

After a number of years of hard labor the field began to widen; the editor joined with him in the work his eldest son, Edward Livingston Kellogg, who shouldered the business details and burdens. He has won a deserved name for untiring industry and sterling integrity in this city and throughout the country. It is owing to his persistent efforts that the new building has grown from a vague idea to an accomplished fact.

In 1880 the business increased. Prof. Jean Isidore Charlouis was invited to assist in the department of general management. It proved a congenial field for him as he had been a most popular teacher for many years. He has become well known to hundreds of our patrons for his ability in this difficult field.

Another son, William Farnham Kellogg has lately been identified with the general business management of the firm. The rooms devoted to this department are in the rear, each with a fire-place.

#### THE ADVERTISING DEPARTMENT

has become a most important one. Each issue of *THE JOURNAL* and *INSTITUTE* reaches over 60,000 separate subscribers and is read by nearly one half of all the teachers of the country. It is the progressive teacher of America who reads these papers. The publishers and large general advertisers have been quick to see the advantages of reaching the leading educators of the land, and



have patronized the advertising columns in a most liberal manner. It has been and is the unabated effort to give these publications a circulation that would warrant asking for the best patronage.

The "Educational Field" is destined to be the favorite field with advertisers. The teacher is sure to be the enlightened person in the community; he is surrounded with minds that are curious concerning the new things of the world. THE JOURNAL and INSTITUTE reach the Educational Field.

#### THE EDUCATIONAL BUREAU.

Growing out of the efforts of THE JOURNAL to induce teachers to look on teaching as a work demanding a regular and thoughtful preparation, came constant requests for teachers with new ideas. This led to the establishment of a department to meet the demands. In 1889 Herbert Steele Kellogg, another son, took charge of this branch of the business, and it has prospered in his hands. It is not so much proposed by him to furnish teachers of all sorts, as it is those who may lay a good claim to have a thorough professional preparation. In the rear of the second floor the "N. Y. Educational Bureau" is located. In its files it is intended that the circulars of every private school shall be found.

#### THE EDITORIAL ROOMS

Are on the third floor of the building in front (see sketch). They consist of a reception room with fire-place and library, and three



private offices for the editors. The center taking in the oriel window is occupied by Mr. Amos M. Kellogg. The staff of assistant editors has been enlarged this year. Miss Ellen E. Kenyon, so well and favorably known as a contributor during the past five years has become associate editor and has especial charge of the school-room department. Mr. Ossian Lang, also well-known as a contributor during the past years is also an assistant. The little lobby and gate shown in sketch are provided to secure quiet and freedom from needless interruption. The rear of this floor is used as a depository for books.

#### THE SUBSCRIPTION DEPARTMENT

is on the 5th floor, lighted on all sides. Here the mail is divided



TERRA COTTA OVER WINDOWS (4th floor).

and placed in the hands of clerks who enter the subscriptions,

send off the books and papers ordered each day, write wrappers, and attend to the vast amount of detail work required. Six type-



TERRA COTTA HEAD IN CORNICE OF ORIEL WINDOW.

writers write out the answers to letters dictated to them by the manager and his assistants. A new feature here is the room devoted to the filing of letters. It contains 650 large pigeon holes labeled from A to Z, and any required letter may be found in a moment. Mr. N. O. Wilhelm, a well-known Pennsylvania teacher, has had charge of this important department for several years.

#### THE PRINTING DEPARTMENT

on the 6th floor occupies the front half and is lighted by a large skylight. Here the type for all the papers and some of the books is set up, corrected and "made up" in iron frames, and sent away to the press rooms in another part of the city. Two presses and a cutting machine run by an electric motor provide the numerous blanks, circulars, etc., used in the business. The rest of the floor is filled with cases of books, and large orders for books are packed on this floor.

#### THE STOCK OF TEACHERS' BOOKS AND HELPS.

In 1886 was issued the first descriptive catalogue of books for teachers, carefully classified. Each year this was added to as new books came out, and to this time 150,000 have been distributed. A new catalogue is about ready of all current books and helps for teachers published, described and classified under the following general departments:

*Methods of Teaching.*

*Principles of Education.*

*Teachers' Aids.*

*Books for School Recreation (Dialogue and Recitation Books, etc.)*

*Light School Apparatus.*

In nearly all cases a special discount is made to teachers. All are kept in stock to fill orders same day as received. Thus, instead of sending to several firms, everything published for teachers may be found here. Expert advice on the selection of books for teachers' libraries, reading circles, etc., will be given.

#### A LIST OF OUR PUBLICATIONS

will show the high character of our work, embracing as it does a very large proportion of the standard teachers' professional books published. A descriptive catalogue with prices sent free on application.

THE SCHOOL JOURNAL, weekly.  
THE SCHOOL JOURNAL, PRIMARY ED., monthly.  
THE TEACHERS' INSTITUTE, monthly.  
EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATIONS, monthly.  
OUR TIMES, monthly.

#### PRINCIPLES OF EDUCATION.

Fitch's Improvement in Teaching.  
Huntington's Unconscious Tuition.  
Payne's Lectures on Education.  
Reinhart's Principles of Education.  
Tate's Philosophy of Education.

#### BOOKS ON PSYCHOLOGY, ETC.

Allen's Mind Studies for Teachers.  
Allen's Temperament in Education.  
Rooper's Apperception.  
Welch's Talks on Psychology.  
Welch's Teachers' Psychology.

#### PRINCIPLES AND METHODS.

Currie's Early & Infant Education.  
Fitch's Art of Questioning.  
Fitch's Art of Securing Attention.  
Fitch's Lectures on Teaching.  
Hughes' Mistakes in Teaching.  
Hughes' Securing Attention.  
Parker's Practical Teacher.  
Parker's Talks on Teaching.  
Quick's How to Train the Memory.  
Yonge's Practical Work in School.

#### METHODS OF TEACHING.

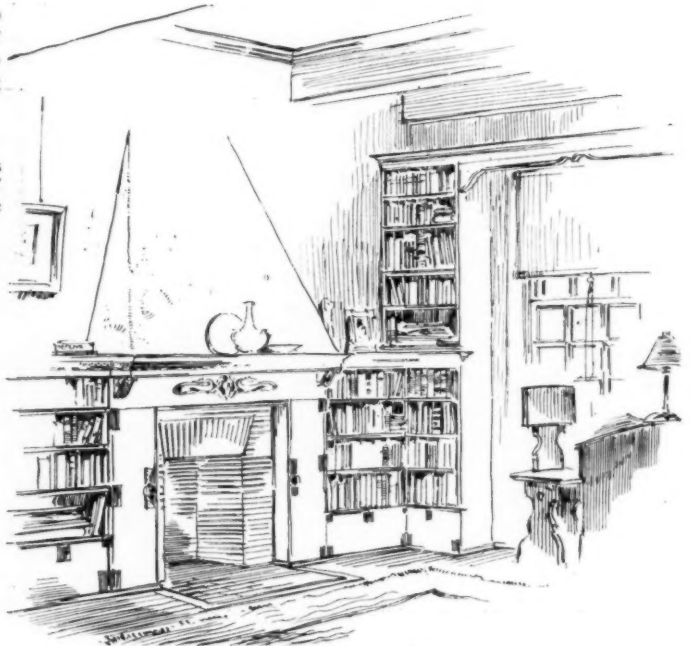
Augsburg's Easy Things to Draw.  
Augsburg's Drawings for Geography Class.  
Calkins' Teaching Phonics.  
Dewey's How to Teach Manners.  
Fitch's Improvement in Teaching.  
Gardiner's Standard Physiology.  
Gladstone's Object Teaching.  
Hughes' How to Keep Order.  
Johnson's Education by Doing.  
Kellogg's Writing Compositions.  
Patridge's Quincy Methods.  
Seeley's Grube Idea in Primary Arithmetic.  
Seeley's Grube's Method of Arithmetic.  
Shaw & Donnell's School Devices.  
Sidgwick's Stimulus in School.  
Smith's Rapid Practice Arithmetic Cards.  
Woodhull's Easy Experiments.

#### HISTORY OF EDUCATION, GREAT EDUCATORS, ETC.

Autobiography of Froebel.  
Browning's Educational Theories.  
Kellogg's Geography by Map Drawing.  
Kellogg's Life of Pestalozzi.  
Lang's Basedow.  
Lang's Comenius.  
Quick's Educational Reformers.  
Reinhart's History of Education.

#### PRIMARY EDUCATION, OBJECT LESSONS, ETC.

Calkins' Ear and Voice Training.



MR. E. L. KELLOGG'S PRIVATE OFFICE.

Currie's Early & Infant Education.  
Gladstone's Object Teaching.  
Johnson's Education by Doing.  
Kilburn's Elementary Teaching.  
Parker's Talks on Teaching.  
Parker's Practical Teacher.  
Patridge's Quincy Methods.  
Perer's First 3 Years of Childhood.  
Seeley's Grube Method of Arithmetic.  
Seeley's Grube Idea in Primary Arithmetic.

#### KINDERGARTEN EDUCATION.

Froebel's Autobiography, etc.  
Hoffman's Kindergarten Gifts.

#### MORAL EDUCATION.

Dewey's How to Teach Manners.

#### SCHOOL MANAGEMENT.

Hughes' How to Keep Order.  
Kellogg's School Management.  
Seeley's Grube's Teaching Arithmetic.  
Sidgwick's Stimulus in School.

#### PHYSICAL EDUCATION.

Groff's School Hygiene.

#### INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION.

Butler's Argument for Manual Training.  
Love's Industrial Education.  
Upham's 50 Lessons in Wood-working.

#### SCHOOL LAW.

Pooler's New York School Laws.

#### QUESTION BOOKS.

Analytical Question Series. Geography.  
Analytical Question Series. United States History.  
Etc., Etc., Etc.

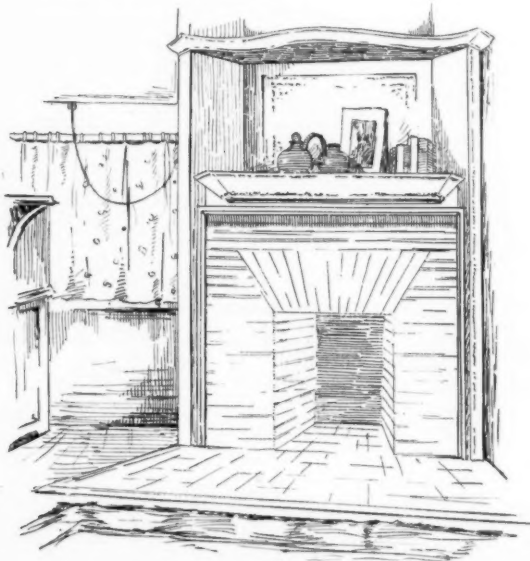
#### THE CHICAGO OFFICE.

The business that came from the West made it necessary to open an office in Chicago. This is located at 262 Wabash Ave., under the skilful management of Mr. A. Flanagan, who has built up a wide reputation for promptness and fair dealing in the West. All our own publications are in stock there and orders are filled at once. Subscriptions should, however, be sent direct to the New York office.

#### GENERAL THANKS.

As will be noted, the design of the new building is one that is uncommonly beautiful, and has attracted much attention. Very little ornamentation is used, but that little is most carefully designed. Our special thanks are due to the architect, Mr. Wilson Eyre, Jr., of 927 Chestnut St., Philadelphia, for his careful, thorough and most artistic work. Though a young man he stands at the head of his profession. Our thanks are also tendered to the following contractors for their special endeavors to make the building a practical and artistic success:—

Mr. Hugh Getty, New York—general contractor  
Perth Amboy Terra Cotta Co., N. Y.—Terra Cotta and Brick.  
Boynton-Furnace Co.—Hot Water Heating Apparatus.  
A. B. See Mfg. Co., Brooklyn, N. Y., Electric Elevator.  
Riverside Iron Works, Paterson, N. J., Iron Work.  
Clarence Newman, 720 E. 11th St., Iron Gas Fixtures.  
Yale Lock Co., New York and Chicago, Hardware.  
McLeod, Ward & Co., New York—Electric Wiring.  
Electric Clock Co., Waynesboro, Pa.—Program Clock.



FIRE-PLACE IN ADVERTISING DEPARTMENT.



Group No. 1, in the second grade has reached the number *twenty* and will begin the study of *tens*. This teaching has for its object the knowledge of tens as units of another denomination and the notation and numeration of numbers to one-hundred. Present the subject objectively. Bundles, or rows, of ten ones each, bound together for convenient handling serve as objects. Begin with the reduction of tens to units. 2 tens = 20, 5 tens = 50, 3 tens = 30, 7 tens = 70, 8 tens = 80, 9 tens = 90, 4 tens = 40, etc. Teach the notation in connection with this reduction. The facts that follow correspond with those taken between 1 and 10, namely:

20+10, 30-10, 30-20, 30+10, 40-10, 40-30, 20+20, 40-20, 40÷20, 2×20,  $\frac{1}{2}$  of 40, 40÷10, 50-10, 50-40, 30+20, 50-20, 50-30, 50+10, 60-10, 60-50, 40+20, 60-20, 60-40, 60÷20, 3×20,  $\frac{1}{3}$  of 60, 30+30, 60-30, 60÷30, 2×30,  $\frac{1}{2}$  of 60, 60+10, 70-10, 70-60, 50+20, 70-20, 70-50, 40+30, 70-30, 70-40, 70+10, 80-10, 80-70, 60+20, 80-20, 80-60, 80÷20, 4×20,  $\frac{1}{4}$  of 80, 50+30, 80-30, 80-50, 40+40, 80-40, 80÷40, 2×40,  $\frac{1}{2}$  of 80, 80+10, 90-10, 90-80, 70+20, 90-20, 90-70, 60+30, 90-30, 90-60, 90÷30, 3×30,  $\frac{1}{3}$  of 90, 50÷40, 90-40, 90-50, 90+10, 100-10, 100-90, 80+20, 100-20, 100-80, 100÷20, 5×20,  $\frac{1}{5}$  of 100, 70+30, 100-30, 100-70, 60+40, 100-40, 100-60, 50+50, 100-50, 100÷50, 2×50, 100÷50.

Complete the subject by teaching the additions and subtractions of tens and ones as, 20+8=28, 50+3=53, 77-7=70, 95-5=90, 89-9=80, 65-60=5.

## A Temperance Lesson.

By E. E. K.

Six of Miss Blank's boys were late at one o'clock. There they stood at the side of the room, hat in hand, some of them downcast and sheepish with the consciousness of a double fault, others betraying lively recollections of the prime sport that had detained them around the corner after the ringing of the bell. Several classmates, who seemed to know the cause of the excitement, though they had been too prudent and dutiful to allow it to bring them into disgrace at school, looked sympathy into those dancing eyes that expressed lingering relish of the fun, while two or three more thoughtful boys, equally in the secret, appeared unusually serious. Miss Blank was in the secret, too, and her face was most serious of all, as she searched her scrap-book for something the boys felt sure would prove to have a bearing on the case awaiting trial. Having found the selection she wanted, she glanced rapidly over her class and marked the roll for the afternoon. Then she was ready for business. As she sat back in her chair the pupils unconsciously did the same and gave intense attention to what followed.

Scanning the faces of the tardy, she passed by the shame-faced ones, willing to spare them, and addressed a merry lad who could not, even under the influence of her solemn eyes, quite banish the spirit of fun that had led him and his mates astray.

"Tony, look at the boys who are with you. Were they all detained by the same cause that made you late?"

"Yes, ma'am. Miss Blank—"

"Wait a minute, Tony. You are eager to tell me all about it, I know, but wait. You look as if it was something very pleasant you had to tell—something for me to laugh at, or be glad about; I wonder if I couldn't guess what it was that all you boys waited to see and enjoyed so much that you could not hear the school bell. Let me see! It was a man in splendid health showing how quickly he could climb a telegraph pole."

A giggle from a boy in his seat and a laughing "No, ma'am," from Tony.

"Well, I guessed that first because perfect health is the gladdest thing I can think of. Then it was a man who waved in the air a receipt and told everybody that he had paid the last dollar he owed—"

"No, ma'am," more seriously, for laughing Tony was beginning to catch the purport of this examination and the heads of all his five companions were hanging.

"I guessed that because, when once you know the misery of being in debt, it is such a happy feeling to know that at last you owe no man a cent. Let me try again. It was a man carrying home Christmas presents to his wife and children; and he rode with the driver, in a coal cart that was taking fuel to warm his little ones' home."

"No, ma'am."

"Then it was a man who carried a poor cripple across the muddy street, and you thought, what a grand sight it is, since there must be suffering in the world, that there are strong, kind-hearted, steady-nerved people too, to help the unfortunate bear their misery."

"No, ma'am." Six heads were hanging now.

"Was it a little girl, who slept in a doorway and dreamed that her father had fallen downstairs and killed himself, and who awoke to see him standing before her, waiting to take her home?"

"No, ma'am."

"Well, I have used up all the glad things I can think of. What was it?"

"It was a drunken man."

A solemn silence reigned for a moment, during which the children had time to feel the full force of the contrast between good and evil. Then Miss Blank said, in a subdued tone, "Tell me more about it."

"He couldn't walk straight, and the boys pegged mud at him, and he got mad and threw his hat at them, and a feller got the hat and filled it with mud and gave it back to him, and he threw it down, and another feller picked it up and put it on his head, and the mud ran down his neck and he tried to chase the teller, and fell into a mud hole, and one arm was under him, so that he couldn't move it, and he waved the other arm at the boys and said, 'Come on, the whole gang o' yez,' and a feller went up and took hold of his hand and said, 'How d'ye do?'"

"But those were very little boys who did thoughtless things," said Miss Blank, "boys who have never thought what a dreadful thing it is for a man to take a poison that makes him so sick in body that he cannot walk and so sick in mind that he cannot think! Little boys who are too young to think of the starving, shivering children and the unhappy wife of a man who spends his wages for poisonous liquors! There were no boys eleven and twelve years of age among those who enjoyed tormenting that miserable man!"

No answer.

"Were there, Tony?"

"Yes, ma'am. Some of us."

"Then my boys need that I should tell them something. Take your seats, you late boys, and I will tell you all together."

"Know, my dear boys, that there are terrible passions that beset people's lives and that one of these passions is the love of strong drink. These dreadful enemies that seem to come from somewhere within us destroy more lives than plagues and famines and accidents and wars all put together. They steal on us unawares, unless we are very watchful. We first know of them through a strong temptation to do wrong. If we are wise and determined enough to resist this temptation, and to keep resisting it, we escape the enemy and our happiness and our honor are saved. But if, in some weak moment, we yield to him, he gains a strong hold on us, and he strengthens this hold every time we yield. The poor man at whom you laughed this noon did not know his enemy until it was too late to resist him. It is hardly likely now that he will ever escape from him. He will probably go on and on, through deeper and deeper disgrace and misery, until he dies a drunkard's horrible death and leaves his wretched family free from his hateful presence, but full of heartbreaking memories. And, whenever he is sober enough to think, he will vainly wish that he had resisted the beginnings of evil and vainly pray for release from the awful passion that consumes him."

Miss Blank had clasped her hands upon her desk and leaned forward toward her boys while issuing this solemn warning. After a pause she continued:

"A few days ago you learned how many gallons make a barrel, but there is more in a barrel of whiskey than gallons can ever measure. I have a selection here which tells some of the things it contains. You may copy the lines into your scrap-books as I write them on the board."

(Selected.)

### WHAT A BARREL OF WHISKEY CONTAINS:

A barrel of headaches, of heartaches, of woes;  
A barrel of curses, a barrel of blows,  
A barrel of tears from a world-weary wife,  
A barrel of sorrows, a barrel of strife;  
A barrel of all unavailing regret;  
A barrel of cares and a barrel of debt;  
A barrel of hunger, of poison, of pain;  
A barrel of hopes ever blasted and vain;  
A barrel of falsehood, a barrel of cries,  
That fall from the maniac's lips ere he dies;  
A barrel of poverty, ruin, and blight.  
A barrel of terrors that grow with the night;  
A barrel of crime, and a barrel of groans;  
A barrel of orphans' most pitiful moans;  
A barrel of serpents that hiss as they pass,  
From the head of the liquor that glows in the glass.

A sound mind in a sound body is a short but full description of a happy state in this world: he that has the two, has little more to wish for; and he that wants either of them, will be but little the better for anything else. [To attain this happy condition is the true object of education.]—LOCKE.

## School Incentives. I.

## SELF-GOVERNMENT—HOW ATTAINED.

By SUPT. E. L. COWDRICK, Wamego, Kansas.

Our pupils, especially in the upper grades, should be thrown for the most part on their own responsibility, and even in the lower grades the degree to which the pupils may be taught self-government would be a revelation to many teachers. Among the older ones much may be done by assuming right motives and conduct to be the rule, anything else to be something unusual. A teacher often has good order because he expects it; and the reverse is likewise true.

With larger pupils a system of self-grading may be used to secure an orderly school; if judiciously managed it will be of vast importance in securing good lessons as well. I have used this plan, or something like it, for three years:

## PUPIL'S PRIVATE REPORT

TO PRINCIPAL,

For week ending November 18, 1892.

	M.	T.	W.	T.	F.
	100	100	100	100	100
Deportment	95	96	94	98	97
	97	98	100	96	98
Geometry	96	90	97	98	95
	100	97	90	92	98
Latin	98	90	85	94	90
	100	98	99	95	96
Literature	99	98	95	96	90
	96	94	98	99	99
Astronomy	95	96	94	92	96

THOMAS JONES,

PUPIL'S NAME.

On Monday morning, each pupil receives a card like the one above. Friday evening these are handed in, filled out by the pupils. They understand that what the principal wants is an honest expression of opinion as to his own proficiency. The upper space in each branch is meant for *preparation* of lesson; in the deportment space, it is meant for *intention*. For instance, a pupil may have put honest effort on the preparation of a lesson, but failed to master it completely. Here preparation would be 96 to 100,—while recitation would be lower,—perhaps 80 to 90. Here is one filled out to illustrate:

Now, some will say that pupils will not give an honest grading. Yes, they will, if the teacher shows that *he expects it*,—and, too, if the pupil understands that the teacher keeps his own record, and will not change it because he has marked himself higher in that record.

This may also be used as an attendance record, thus relieving the teacher of the work of marking the register every day. A blank will indicate non-attendance. A dot in the lower right hand corner will indicate tardiness in the forenoon of any day, while one in the upper left hand corner will show the same of the afternoon. These dots may be placed in the deportment space, as shown above.

Pupils will often have a poor lesson, and generally think it amounts to but little; but it assumes quite a different aspect to them when they must mark it against themselves; and it is just as true in the preparation of lessons, and in their deportment as well. Then the knowledge that the report must be handed in for inspection at the end of every week, is quite an incentive to good behavior and good lessons. It is a much better plan than having them keep their records in blank books, for they know that the books will seldom be examined, and they become careless and often fail to keep a record at all. This is one of the best aids to self-government I have ever tried, and it cannot fail if rightly used.

## The School Lunch.

## SUGGESTIONS TO BE MADE TO PUPILS.

By the Author of "Preston Papers."

The subject of lunches is deserving of careful thought not only as to materials used, but as regards preparation and accessories. Good digestion is prone to "wait on appetite, and health on both." The ordinary lunch basket, pail, box, napkin, or paper, with its contents, too often frightens appetite away; and the manner of disposing of the contents begets bad table manners.

Oblong boxes of tin, about the size and shape of an ordinary shoe box, are the best in which to pack the lunch; if these cannot be had pasteboard boxes are next best, but must not be used many days, as they will absorb odors from each day's food. Baskets while convenient to carry are difficult to pack and allow the food to become dry and unpalatable. Tin pails are not convenient for packing. Napkins and paper are inconvenient to carry. *Whatever* is used should be spotlessly clean; if tin it should be scalded in boiling water, daily.

The food should be prepared with some reference to *looks*, also; it should be put neatly in the box. Bread should be cut thin, and spread evenly and thinly with butter, and "doubled" in sizes convenient for handling without knife or plate. "Slabs" of bread and butter, "chunks" of meat, cheese, or pie, should be left at home. The meat should be daintily sliced, then placed between thin layers of bread or by itself in a white napkin or clean white tea paper. So of pickles, and of cheese—though these condiments should be sparingly used. Jellies, and other solid sauces, baked pears and apples, custards, and Saratoga potatoes, may be put in small cups and neatly tied over the top with white paper. Boiled eggs, if hard, should be divested of shells, then treated like meat; if soft, a cup and spoon *must* be provided, unless the English style of eating eggs from the shell has been learned, which requires only a very small spoon.

Tea, coffee, milk, chocolate, or cocoa may be seasoned and put in a small bottle tightly corked. Beef tea, home made, is nutritious and palatable; so of barley coffee, and crust coffee; and any of these may be heated, in a cup kept in the desk for that purpose, by the school fire. So of the numerous canned soups which are now sold. Something warm with a cold, dry lunch, is a wonderful help in the afternoon's school-work.

Sandwiches are toothsome only when daintily fashioned, and cut to the proper size, narrow strips about three inches long; they may be of bread and butter or crackers for the outside (Graham crackers preferred) with a filling of meat, sliced thin or minced; eggs, sliced, chopped, or scrambled; jelly, jam, marmalade or any sauce that is not too juicy; fruit sandwiches are very palatable. Cookies with fruit between make a delicious combination.

Fruit should be a staple in the preparation of a lunch; fresh when possible. Celery in its season, water cresses, nasturtium stems, and grape-leaf stems are good with a plain bread and butter lunch or one of bread and meat.

A napkin and small drinking glass should accompany each lunch; the latter may be kept in the desk. They are absolutely necessary. The lunch should be an object lesson in refinement,

## Breathe, Breathe, Breathe!

The secret of health, say some of the cranks, is *taking large breaths*. At least, we know that the more the fire is fed with oxygen the brighter it will burn. On our way to work, this glorious winter morning, we saw a puny child, warmly dressed but shivering, with hands in muff, chin down, shoulders drawn together and pinched face expressing dread of the cold, while across the street were children less carefully protected by clothing, but with dancing eyes, rosy cheeks, and lusty voices, making the most of that fleeting delight, the snow! We wanted to say to the unhappy one, "Stiffen the sinews! Summon up the blood! Meet the cold fiend in defiance! Drink in this splendid air! Hurry the waste of your own clogged system to the lung furnace! Quickened the rush of the fluid of life through your chilled veins! Blow the bellows that shall create a demand for fuel! Sense Health, and Hunger, for, perhaps, the first time in your life! Straighten the spine, throw back the shoulders, fling the arms outward, lift the cramped vital organs, toss your young head aloft and know the joy of living! Breathe, breathe, breathe!"

Was our picture of what oxygen and resistance would do for the child too roseate? Is it probable that the claims of some dread disease were already too peremptory for so simple a cure? What is disease? and how much of it might "the fire within us" burn away if we would but keep it flaming?

"I have selected EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATIONS as a textbook for my Training class, and the interest in them is spreading among teachers. E. H. DAVIS, Supt. Chelsea, Mass.



## Lessons on the Months.

By JENNIE YOUNG.

### MARCH.

After whom was March named? Mars. Who was Mars? Spell March. What stands for March? How many days are there in this month?

What kind of a month is March? What can you tell me about the length of the days and nights? (Call attention to the facts of the equinox, position of the sun, etc.)

How do the trees look now? Are they dead? How can you tell? Where are the leaves? They are wrapped up in the little leaf buds. (Describe.) Where are the caterpillars? Where are the cocoons and chrysalids? Where are the birds? Have any come back yet? Let us watch for them. Are the days growing warmer or colder?

What will happen on the 4th of March? The new president will be inaugurated. (Explain.) How often is a president inaugurated? Who is to be inaugurated this March? Where does the inauguration take place?

Describe and let the children bring pictures illustrating the event. Newspaper cuts or anything to make the occurrence graphic. These pictures may be pasted in albums or preserved in any other way. For observation work have twigs and branches of trees and shrubs. Put them in water and let the children notice how the buds unfold from day to day. In this way the subject can be so well prepared, that, as outside vegetation advances, the children will be interested to observe for themselves. If the teacher can secure flower buds of the lilac and keep them covered with a dampened cloth and supply steady heat, she may have the pleasure of developing miniature lilac blossoms as well as leaves from the little brown buds.

The following may be written upon the blackboard for sight reading:

### MARCH.

"March, why do you blow so hard?" asked gentle May.

March came rushing in like a lion, but, when he heard May's sweet voice, he stopped to answer. "Oh," said he, "I have to bluster and blow and make a great noise to wake up the flowers."

"Where are the flowers?" asked little May. "I do not see any flowers. The ground is all bare and even the grass is not green."

"The flowers are asleep," said March. "Some are safe under ground, some are safe in the little seeds, and some are wrapped up safe in the flower buds and swing in their little brown cradle all day long on the branches of the trees. They are all sound asleep and when my winds whistle shrill, they are telling the flowers it is time to wake, for spring, dear spring, has come."

## A Study of Air.

MISS MARY A. SPEAR, Quincy, Mass.

Take a long breath. What did you breathe in? What is all around us? Can you see air? Fan yourself. Can you feel air? Move your hands quickly to and fro. Can you feel air when you are doing this? Do you feel air passing through your nose while you breathe? Do you feel air when it is still or when it is moving? Did you ever feel a breeze or light wind? Did you ever hear one? You do not see air, but you can feel it and hear it when it is in motion. Try to feel and to hear it when it is quiet.

Here is a goblet. Do you say it is empty? No, it is filled with air. Tell or show some other places in this room where there is air. Look at the cells of a sponge; look amongst the waste papers in a scrap-basket; look at this thimble, is there any air in it? Find some place where there is no air. Dora says there is no air in the goblet now, because she has filled it with water. She thinks water has crowded out the air. Is she right?

Pour the water from the goblet and wipe the glass till it is dry; then turn it upside down. Is there anything in it now? Do you think there is as much air in it now as when it was turned upward? Paul says he can turn a goblet so as to pour out water, but air cannot be poured out in the same way.

Here is a deep pan nearly filled with water; the water is deeper than the cup of the goblet. I place the dry, inverted cup on the surface and press it downwards. Slowly and steadily it goes down till we hear it touch the bottom of the pan. Is it filled with water? No, because close down to the bottom we see a dark band which shows us the height of water. Why did it not rise higher? "Because air is in the cup above it," says Maud. Why does the air not go out, as when Dora filled the goblet? "It cannot get out; water is below and glass above it." "When Dora poured a stream of water into the glass, it pushed out the air as fast as the water went in."

Rufus thinks we may be mistaken about the goblet in the pan; it may be filled with water but we do not see it. Edna thinks so, too. I take it out of the water, wipe it clean and dry, then fasten a strip of very thin paper to the bottom of the cup. The length

of the paper equals the depth of the cup. A button is fastened by a thread to one end of the paper. Why is it put there? To give a little weight to the paper so it will not float. Placing the inverted goblet in water and pressing down firmly, it touches the bottom of the pan. Now Rufus may lift it out carefully to see whether all the paper is wet. "No, it is wet only a little way from the bottom, so I know the water did not reach far up into the cup." What could have been above the water? Air was there. Water crowded the air into a smaller space, but did not go through it, and the paper that was in the air was not wet.



Alan wants to know whether the air might not be out of the goblet, and thus leave nothing between the water and the place where the paper was fastened to the cup. Can there be nothing in any place, Alan? Did you ever blow soap bubbles? What is inside a bubble? What is your breath? You say you breathe in air, and so you must breathe out air; it is air that fills the bubbles. Look as I tip the goblet a little, keeping its rim below the water. What do you see coming up? What is inside these bubbles? Where does the air inside them come from? If I let it out of the goblet, it must be some which was above the water. Now lift the glass out and look at the paper inside. More of it is wet than before; that shows us the water went higher in the cup than before; yet part of the paper is dry and there was some air above the water. Water and air are not in the same place.

More than three hundred years ago, a man found out just what you have been learning to-day. He thought a vessel, shaped like the cup of this goblet or like a bell, could be made large enough to hold a man; then a boat could carry it out to sea till it came to deep waters where it was to be dropped overboard, and he would go down to the bottom of the sea. He would have a seat near the top of the bell, and a strong glass window there so he might look out into the water far below the bottom of the boat. He told his plan to another, and the two men had a great bell made of iron; it was made large enough to hold them and heavy enough to sink in water when it was thrown overboard. When it was finished, Emperor Charles V. and thousands of people gathered at Toledo in Spain to see these men who went down under water and came up again without being wet. Since that time better diving-bells have been made. They are used a great deal; people can go down in them to take things of value from wrecked and sunken vessels. Diving-bells are used when building walls under water, or when laying a strong foundation for a wharf or pier.

Ira thinks pure air in a diving-bell will not last long, and if a man cannot have good air to breathe he could not live long under the water. Diving-bells have tubes reaching from them to the boat so that fresh air can be sent down to the man in the bell.

## The Magic Lantern in Education.

The old atmosphere of wonder which hung over the first achievements of science was so full of superstition that the practical experimenter in physics was regarded as more or less of a magician; but all the wonders of the Black Art gradually gave way to what we may call the White Art of projection with oil, lime, and electric light. Magic has no longer a claim on the lantern, which has gradually grown to be a scientific instrument and the servant of the teacher.

Disusing the term "magic" some writers have called it the "optical" lantern, but since the eye does not look through it the choice of the adjective seems to be inaccurate. The lantern really belongs to the class of the camera. It is not merely a passive instrument through which the worker looks, but it is in itself an active partner and helper when associated with an intelligent teacher. The lantern is not only a scientific instrument, but a scientific worker, and although a silent partner, there is no more suggestive assistant in the school and the lecture room.

The suggestive power of the lantern is well shown in the new light which it throws on familiar objects. The falling of sand in

the hour-glass is so well known that we pass it by without turning the head but a new fact was discovered when this was magnified on the screen. Every minute blow of the falling grains of sand altered the shape of the growing heap of sand at the bottom and the concussion of the falling grain was seen propagating itself in a kind of wave motion from the top to the bottom of the cone of sand. This effect scarcely noticeable in the glass before the eye, when magnified on the screen, became an interesting study of the laws of the distribution of force.

As yet teaching through the eye is but in its infancy. It is the key to the future education. The time will surely come when teaching such a topic as geography without showing photographs of the localities described will be an absurdity; the teaching of history without a view of historic buildings and scenes is now obsolete in our best schools.

But what kind of a lantern is the best? The teacher does not need the showman's outfit. Such an outfit may not come amiss for festivals and entertainments of a school can afford the expense, but for the average school, an educational lantern can be used that can be fitted with all the accessories for scientific teaching as well as for the work of projecting pictures. It may not be generally known that a well furnished educational lantern will supply in some measure the place of an expensive outfit of scientific instruments. Ample illustrations of the study of electricity, light, sound and heat can be made with such a lantern.

If the teacher wishes to use oil as well as lime light in average school work a word may be said about the two kinds of oil lights—the flat wick and the argand. The flat wicks always have an uneven illumination, some bands of greater or less light or shade must occur on the screen. The only perfectly even illumination is from the argand style of lamp—but as to the ordinary argand any student's lamp is as good. There is, however, a patent lamp combining the depth of flame of the flat wick and the unbroken surface of the argand. It is furnished with the educational lantern. In purchasing such a lantern go to a store where all educational instruments are for sale.

## CHILD AND THE SNOW-FLAKES

By GRACE E. YORK.

(The following can be made daintily suggestive with a little pains. The "snowflakes" should be dressed in white. They should also be festooned all over with half-inch strips of white cotton cloth, raveled on both edges almost to the center. Great quantities of this material will be needed and its preparation may occupy the children both at home and as "busy work" in school. The festooning should be continued out to the hands, and ends of the fringe should dangle from the finger tips. High caps made of bonnet wire and festooned with the fringe should crown the heads. The hair should be concealed under white skull-caps and the eye-brows powdered white. While the "snowflakes" are reciting, they should wave their outstretched arms very gently up and down, to give the effect of falling snow. They should stand in a row, diagonally facing the audience, the smallest at the front of the stage. From three to six "snowflakes" should take part. They should recite and sing in concert, with great clearness and in exceedingly soft voices.)

Child.—

Pretty white flakes of falling snow,  
Whence do you come, and whither go?

Snowflakes.—

From our cloudland home we have come to-day,

Child.—

Pretty white flakes, you have run away.

Snowflakes.—

That is true, little girl,—beyond a doubt  
The cloud door opened and we slipped out.  
Then, lest the sun should carry us back,  
Swiftly we ran o'er the wonderful track  
That leads from the sky straight down to earth,  
Where a long time ago we had our birth.

Child.—

Were you born on the earth, little flakes of snow?  
You have no wings to fly—then how could you go.  
'Way up to the clouds that seem so far,  
And come back again—each a pretty white star?

Snowflakes.—

A part of the sea's blue waves were we,  
Rolling about so wild and free,  
Till the sun bent down and dipped us up,

And carried us off in his shining cup,  
Then each drop floated now low, now high,  
Till together we made a cloud in the sky.

And larger and stronger we grew till to-day  
We found the door open and ran away.  
Swiftly we came from the sky's blue dome,  
Till we passed Jack Frost in his frozen home.  
And he touched the mist as it hurried by,  
Till it seemed white stars from an icy sky.

Now, here we are back on the earth once more,  
A pretty white quilt to cover it o'er,  
And to keep it warm till the winds of spring,  
Shall once more the grass and the blossoms bring.

SONG.

Tune: "Lightly Row."

Flutt'ring down! Flutt'ring down,  
On the branches bare and brown,  
Over all, over all,  
See the snowflakes fall.  
Light as feathers in the air,  
Dancing, dancing, here and there;  
Winter's bees, winter's bees,  
Swarm upon the trees.

Stars of snow! Stars of snow!  
Dropping to the earth below,  
From the sky, from the sky,  
See the snow-stars fly.

Dancing, dancing, etc.

### Who Made It?

Wait a moment, little maid,  
Dancing in your satin dress.  
Can you tell me how 'twas made?  
Ah! I see you cannot guess.

It was made by crawling worms,  
Simple creatures, dull and slow;  
Should you see them you would think  
They could only eat and grow.

Not from place to place they rove,  
Tasting fruit and flower and weed;  
On the mulberry tree they live,  
On its shining leaves they feed.

Day and night they feed and grow,  
Resting not till they begin  
From their hoard of dainty food  
Finest silken thread to spin.

Round and round the thread they wind,  
Spinning, winding, night and day;  
Never resting from their work  
Till their lives are spun away.

When this patient task is done,  
All their silken store they leave,  
Which the artful, whirling loom  
Into fairest webs shall weave.

Then, my little dancing maid,  
Stop a moment's thought to take  
For the gentle worms that thus  
Lived and toiled your dress to make.—*Selecta.*

### Naughty Patty.

Little Patty Popgun  
Never'd stay in bed;  
Mother'd hear her footies  
Pit pat overhead.

Last night naughty Patty  
Caught her little toes.  
Down she fell and O! O!  
Bumped her little nose.

Up they came and found her  
Crying on the floor,  
And to-day her head aches  
And her nose is sore.

Were I Patty Popgun,  
I would stay in bed;  
I would do precisely  
What my mother said.

—*Selecta d.*



## Little Nut People.

Old Mistress Chestnut once lived in a burr,  
Padded and lined with the softest of fur,  
Jack Frost split it wide with his keen silver knife,  
And tumbled her out at the risk of her life.

Here is Don Almond, a grandee from Spain,  
Some raisins from Malaga came in his train;  
He has a twin brother a shade or two leaner,  
When both come together we shout "Philopena!"

This is Sir Walnut; he's English, you know,  
A friend of my Lady and Lord So-and-So.  
Whenever you ask old Sir Walnut to dinner,  
Be sure and have wine for the gouty old sinner.

Little Miss Peanut, from North Carolina,  
She's not 'ristocratic but no nut is finer.  
Sometimes she is roasted and burnt to a cinder,  
In Georgia they call her Miss Goober, or Pinder.

Little Miss Hazelnut, in her best bonnet,  
Is lovely enough to be put in a sonnet;  
And young Mr. Filbert has journeyed from Kent,  
To ask her to marry him soon after Lent.

This is old Hickory; look at him well,  
A general was named for him, so I've heard tell.  
Take care how you hit him. He sometimes hits back!  
This stolid old chap is a hard nut to crack.

Old Mr. Butternut just from Brazil,  
Is rugged and rough as the side of a hill;  
But like many a countenance quite as ill-favored.  
His covers a kernel deliciously flavored.

Here is a Southerner, graceful and slim,  
In flavor no nut is quite equal to him.  
Ha, Monsieur Pecan, you know what it means,  
To be served with black coffee in French New Orleans.

Dear little Chinkapin, modest and neat,  
Isn't she cunning and isn't she sweet?  
Her skin is as smooth as a little boy's skin,  
And the squirrels all chatter of Miss Chinkapin.

And now, my dear children, I'm sure I have told  
All the queer rhymes that a nutshell can hold.

—St. Nicholas.

## Why?

*First boy.*—What do boys smoke for?

*Second boy.*—I don't know. Do you?

1. Doesn't it make their teeth white?

2. No. It makes them black.

1. Doesn't it keep the teeth strong?

2. No. It makes them decay.

1. Doesn't it sweeten the breath?

2. No. It makes the breath bad.

1. Does it make a boy manly?

2. No. It makes him look like an unweaned calf.

1. Does it make him grow fast?

2. No. It keeps him from growing as he should.

1. How do you know?

2. The doctors say so, and I heard my father read, the other day, about the men in a big college. Those that had never used tobacco were larger and stronger than those that had used it.

1. Why does your cousin Tim smoke?

2. Because the other fellows do.

1. Is that a good reason?

2. No. I told him it was a very silly reason.

1. Do all the other fellows smoke?

2. Some don't.

1. What kind of boys are those that don't smoke?

2. Boys that have ideas of their own about it.

1. Why doesn't Tim have ideas of his own?

2. Don't know. Guess he never thought of any.

1. Does your sister smoke?

2. (*Angrily.*) Say do you know who you're talking to?

1. What's the matter?

2. You asked me if my sister smoked. I wouldn't own her for my sister if she did.

1. Why is it any worse for her to smoke than Tim?

2. I never thought of that.

1. Does your moth—

2. Keep still, now! Don't you ask that!

1. Does your fa—

2. Yes, yes! I wish he didn't. Don't let's talk any more about it. I wish tobacco had never grown out of the ground. Everybody that knows anything says it's only a nasty weed, anyway!

—Adapted.

## Editorial Notes.

We place before our readers this week, in two articles to which we call their closest attention, the system of teaching young children to read, which is proving so successful in Brooklyn. The author of this system, Assistant Superintendent Edward G. Ward, was a little loth to have it published at this early date, because, though it has passed beyond the stage of a mere experiment, it is not yet fully developed. When time has applied its pruning shears and added solid growth to the work, Mr. Ward will himself, we trust, publish this helpful plan without unnecessary delay. Meanwhile, the secret is in the hands of all the Brooklyn teachers, and, with the assistance of our readers, it is in a fair way to be well kept.

Subscribers to THE PRIMARY SCHOOL JOURNAL who are particularly interested in the series, "Drawing in Public Schools" and "Blackboard Illustrative Sketching" will find No. VI. of each of these series in THE JOURNAL of February 11, copies of which will be mailed to such subscribers on request.

Miss Hintz will follow her present series, to be completed in two more numbers, with another of equal value to teachers. There will soon be no excuse left for teachers to say, I cannot draw.

We call the attention of our readers to two articles in this issue in which the new work in elementary reading lately introduced into the public schools of Brooklyn is described. One of these is in our Pedagogical Department and the other under Primary Methods. The innovation is an important one and is likely to become general as soon as its effects are known.

One of the features of educational periodical literature during the past few years has been the rapid multiplication of local papers published by some county or city superintendent, often well known locally. So far as this activity represents and promotes sound educational advancement, it is commendable, and has already done great good in educating thousands of teachers who never took an educational paper to know the value of a good one; but it may be seriously questioned whether there is not a danger of dispersion, and consequent obscurity, of the results of teaching ability. Few of these periodicals are self-supporting. By great energy, the projectors secure a few subscribers. The toil on the paper diverts attention from the real stand-by of the editor—his position as superintendent or teacher, and renders him incapable of doing justice to both, with the result we so often see of an excellent position lost and a thousand subscribers out a few papers each. Before starting such periodicals, it is well to consider whether it is not better to strengthen those which exist and can already afford to give their subscribers really helpful and varied material.

The kindergarten and manual training classes of the Rhine-lander school of the Children's Aid Society (Miss M. P. Pascal, Prin.) are doing some excellent work. Last week a public exhibit was of the work done during the winter months. The cookery classes displayed a table covered with tempting dishes. The work of the dressmaking classes was shown by dresses in the various stages of making. The carpentry and whittling classes had prepared picture-frames, foot-rests, and other useful articles. Drawings from objects and original designs were hung about the room. One boy who had arranged a pretty pattern of tablets was asked where he saw the design. He said, "That's the way our oil-cloth looked at home." The work of the little ones comprised paper cutting, braiding, parquetry, perforating, sewing, and stick-laying. The results were surprisingly accurate and in every respect satisfactory.

School Commissioner John B. Merrill has established a training school for teachers of Rockville Center, N. Y. Only graduates of this school and the normal schools of the state will hereafter be licensed to teach in his district.

## Department of Superintendence Of the National Educational Association.

The department met Tuesday, February 21, Dr. Brooks, of Philadelphia, presiding.

### WOODWORK IN GRAMMAR SCHOOLS.

Supt. Virgil G. Curtis, of New Haven, Conn., read the first paper. His subject was "Woodwork in Grammar Schools."

He explained the manner in which woodwork had been taught in his schools. He enumerated the implements, the models used, and strongly maintained that it was not in the work done, but in the doing of it, that the value of the training was to be found. The prime objects to be aimed at were the development of the ingenuity, the training of the ideas and mind of the pupil. Without some practical application the work was almost of no use whatever, as it was not done understandingly, but in a merely mechanical way.

Supt. Clarence E. Meleney, of Somerville, Mass., opened the discussion. He gave a clear and practical description of the Russian and Sloyd systems of manual training.

### GOVERNOR RUSSELL'S ADDRESS.

When Governor Russell entered, the informal discussion was suspended in order to hear the cordial words of the representative of the commonwealth. Gov. Russell spoke in part as follows:

"I have come with no formal phrase or set speech, but to extend to you the hearty welcome of the old Bay State—a welcome quite in contrast to the frigid weather which has welcomed you but coldly and which the commonwealth cannot control. You represent the cause of education in its public work in establishing and upholding the common school, the system upon which rests so much of the stability and progress of our people. It is because of this the commonwealth welcomes you. She has always taken the deepest interest in the public work of education."

Gov. Russell then sketched in a few words, something of the past relations of Massachusetts to the cause of education:

"The public school system to do more useful work must be progressive in idea, instruction, and method, must recognize changed conditions and new wants and wishes. Manual education, at least in some communities, ought to be a part of the school system. The system, too, must be broad and liberal, of tolerant spirit and control."

The speaker was stopped for a moment by applause. He continued:

"Welcoming all to its benefits without distinction of race, class, or religion, so does it become what it was meant to be by the founders of it—a great democratic institution."

### OTHER ADDRESSES OF WELCOME.

President Capen, of the Boston school board, followed with words of welcome to the convention. President Brooks and Supt. Draper responded. By invitation of Gov. Russell a reception was held at the State House in the evening.

### STUDY OF ENGLISH IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

Supt. Albert P. Marble, of Worcester, gave the opening essay of the afternoon session, the topic being the "Study of English in Public Schools." In substance his address was as follows:

"The blame for faulty English cannot always be laid to the schools. The study of English has been defective; let us find a remedy. In France one-fifth of the time is used in studying the French language. If the English language and literature was to occupy as large a proportion of the time in our school curriculum, the education of our children would be greatly improved. For there is no other study in the whole course which may be made a better instrument of culture than the study of English. It concerns itself with close and accurate thinking, and this kind of thinking is the very end and aim of education."

"Many words are used with a sense far removed from their original meaning. Many of these expressions are allowed in the class room. The study of English should begin with oral speech which precedes written language. The vocabulary of a child first at school is much larger than usually supposed. From a series of experiments it has been shown that a child of five years can command and use about fifteen hundred words. The first thing for a teacher is to get the child to express himself. This habit may be stimulated in various ways."

"Oral expression ought to receive more attention. The pupil ought to be taught clear, concise, and appropriate expression. This should be a daily practice. Vague language involves vague thought."

"The careful reading of books in connection with writing is considered an essential to a study of correct language. It enlarges power of thought and of expression. Literature expresses the feelings, emotions, passions, poetry, the fears, despairs, aspirations of human hearts. Language cannot express to anyone much beyond what he has lived or experienced."

"The main purpose of learning the English language is not merely how to use it, but to mine from the literature the treasures embedded within," said the speaker in closing.

James L. Blodgett, of the National Census Bureau, said:

"Reading in the schools could be made infinitely more effective by replacing all meaningless reading lessons with material of intrinsic worth. Books ought to be used which are not merely mechanical, but will be read and discussed at home."

Others who participated in the discussion were: John T. Prince, of the Mass. state board of education; Supervisor Robert C. Metcalf; Assistant Supt. Edgar A. Singer, of Philadelphia; Col. Parker; Supt. Henry A. Wise, of Baltimore; Pres. Brooks; Supt. Aaron Gove, of Denver; and Supt. Freudley, of Youngstown, Ohio.

### MEMORIAL.

Supt. Albert G. Lane, of Chicago, delivered a memorial address

on George Howland, late superintendent of the Chicago schools.

### "EXAMINATIONS AND PROMOTIONS IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS"

was the subject discussed at the evening session.

Supt. William A. Mowry, of Salem, was called upon to open the discussion:

"Is it not time that the system of promotion by written examination should cease, and promotion be made upon some other basis?"

Supt. Miner, of North Adams, Mass., followed.

He said the longer the interval between the promotions the more difficult it was to make the changes. He thought there should be a special teacher, whose duty it should be to attend to promotion and nothing else.

Supt. R. K. Buehrle, of Lancaster, Penn., described the system of grading and promoting in that city.

He said pupils were sometimes promoted without examination, but that was not the rule. They always tried to hold in view the fact that the grade exists for the pupil and not the pupil for the grade.

Supt. Henry A. Wise of Baltimore, said:

"Written examinations have been done away with in Baltimore in the lower grades, the teachers relying upon the record the pupil had made."

Col. Francis W. Parker, principal of the Englewood, (Ill.) normal school, did not believe in written examinations:

"Pupils should be promoted to a higher grade when they are able to do the work of that grade."

Mr. James L. Hughes, inspector of the Toronto, Ont., schools, believed that examination questions should test power rather than knowledge.

### CAMBRIDGE DAY.

The Wednesday meetings were held at Cambridge. In the absence of Pres. Brooks, the chair was filled by Supt. N. C. Dougherty, of Peoria, Ill.

### "PLANS OF ORGANIZATION FOR SCHOOL PURPOSES IN LARGE CITIES"

was the subject of a paper by Supt. Andrew S. Draper:

"The only marked change in any great city of the country in its organization for school purposes had recently occurred in the city of Cleveland."

The new plan creates a school director and a school council of seven members, who together constitute the board of education.

All are elected by the people on general ticket at city elections, and the term of each is two years. The director devotes his entire time to the management of the business interests of the schools. He may veto any action of the school council. The council is the legislative branch of the organization, and the director the executive officer thereof.

The director and council together, appoint a superintendent of instruction, whose term is during good behavior, and he is removable only for cause to be publicly stated by the director and announced to the council.

The superintendent has the exclusive power to appoint and dismiss teachers. He may also assign teachers to positions and change the assignment. This plan centralizes authority and responsibility.

If a teacher lacks strength, or acts badly, the superintendent is responsible. There is always a place at which to make complaints for grievances and always an officer to redress a wrong."

In conclusion Mr. Draper urged that in all organizations for school purposes in great cities the following principles should be observed:

"The elimination of politics from the selection of school boards, or at least from the administration of the schools."

Small school boards with members representing the whole city and not wards or districts.

The complete separation of school administration from municipal business.

That the school system of a great city must not only have an autonomy of its own, but its administration must be separated into suitable departments. Material affairs should be entirely apart from the work of instruction."

### CITY SCHOOL SUPERVISION.

Mr. William H. Maxwell, superintendent of schools at Brooklyn, took up the topic, "The Supervision of City Schools." An abstract follows:

The principal should not only advance bright pupils more rapidly than dull ones, but should seek to discover special aptitudes and guide their possessor in the direction in which they may be made most useful. The principal should seek to determine by inspection and examinations, used as elements of teaching—not stated examinations—whether each teacher in his school is doing her whole duty. The principal should seek to co-ordinate all the studies of a grade and to unify the work of each teacher with that of the teacher above her and the teacher below her.

The principal should correct faults of teaching, and endeavor to improve the work throughout his school by private criticism, by giving model lessons, by general meetings of teachers in which sound pedagogical literature shall be systematically studied, and by grade meetings in which the work of each grade shall be regularly mapped out.

The principal should carry out all rules and orders; he should try experiments and report the results to the superintendent; he should report to the superintendent all new ideas or devices, so that the latter may convey them to other schools; and he should report at stated intervals, faithfully, honestly, and without fear or favor, on the efficiency of every teacher under his charge.

The duties of the superintendent naturally fall into five divisions: Duties in the matter of certificating teachers and preparing an eligible list from which appointments may be made. Duties as an officer of what may be called administrative appeal. Duties in the way of improving the efficiency of teaching, and of guiding and directing the work of teaching. Duties toward the board of education. Duties toward the press and the public.

The conditions necessary to make any system of school supervision effective is that responsibility shall be definitely placed. The teacher should be responsible for the work of her class, the principal for the work of his school, and the superintendent for the work of the whole. To carry out this plan under an ideal system the principal should nominate his subordinate teachers, the superintendent should nominate the principals, and the superintendent should be made secure in his tenure of office.

The National Department of Superintendence should through a committee



investigate all systems of organization, develop an ideal system, and lay it before all state and municipal boards of education.

The two papers given above were briefly discussed by Supt. Charles W. Cole, of Albany; Supt. J. A. Showan, of Columbus, O.; Supt. William B. Powell, of Washington, D. C.; Supt. William N. Barringer, of Newark, N. J.; Supt. Frank A. Fitzpatrick, of Omaha, and Supt. Warren Easton, of New Orleans.

#### AFTERNOON SESSION.

On the motion of Supt. William H. Maxwell, the following resolution was adopted:

Resolved, that a committee of ten be appointed by the committee on nominations to investigate the organization of school systems, the co-ordination of studies in primary and grammar schools, and the training of teachers, with power to organize sub-conferences in such sub-divisions of these subjects as may seem appropriate, and to report the results of their investigations and deliberations at the next meeting of the Department of Superintendence.

It was also resolved, on the motion of Supt. Maxwell:

That the officers of the Department of Superintendence be and hereby are directed to make application to the board of directors of the National Educational Association for an appropriation of \$2,500 to defray the expenses of the committee of ten, and of the conferences which that committee is empowered to appoint.

#### "RECONSTRUCTION OF THE GRAMMAR SCHOOL COURSE"

was the topic of the paper read by Supt. Charles B. Gilbert, of St. Paul.

He said knowledge alone was not power, and power in education was what was wanted. "The first thing needed is simplification. Choose studies with noble content, of widest and most lasting importance. Man and nature, history and literature, and environment of man, and the study of the living, breathing world about him; these are of the highest, noblest import. Study of nature cultivates love of truth."

Mathematics, Mr. Gilbert said, was a valuable but greatly overrated study for young children. Nature and history as a basis, painting, modeling, language, taught the child by simple drill, grammar, rhetoric, form and expression being taught as merely that, and subservient always to the content, and mathematics ought to come in their proper time. Exercise of the higher faculties was necessary to proper education. He believed that too much arithmetic made men sordid.

Supt. Francis Cogswell followed with a paper describing the new courses in the Cambridge, Mass., grammar schools.

In the discussion which followed, Prof. Hart, of Harvard, Supt. A. Hardy, La Crosse, Wis., William H. Maxwell, Brooklyn, and Supt. W. B. Powell, of Washington took part.

President Eliot, of Harvard university, strongly condemned certain defects of the present system.

He pointed out that, in the matter of teaching childrens foreign languages, we were going right against the experience of the whole civilized world. No child should begin learning a foreign tongue later than 10 years of ages yet we did not permit it to touch foreign languages until it had reached the age of 15.

In like manner we prevented a child from getting at algebra and geometry until it was 15. What subject was there of more importance to the American mechanic than geometry? Yet 99 per cent. of the boys who are to become mechanics were prevented from touching geometry by our school programs.

He submitted that these conditions were intolerable, and that, in the interest of the republic and in the interest of American education, they must take hold of the reform of such things with all their might.

#### MORAL INFLUENCE OF EDUCATION.

The evening session was held in Sanders theater. Dr. Harris discussed the question, "What Do School Statistics Teach in Respect to the Moral Influence of Education?"

In 17 states which furnished, as investigation had shown, the most criminals, there were 4 per cent. of illiterates. And this 4 per cent. of illiterates furnished 25 per cent. of the criminals, eight times as many criminals comparatively from the illiterate classes, were the facts drawn from the figures. "The main point in the interpretation of criminal statistics," continued the speaker, "is the proportion of criminals found among both illiterate and educated people."

Every school demands good behavior, punctuality, discipline, self-control. The pupil is brought in contact with the great thoughts of others.

Dr. Harris gave many statistics. He said they might mislead some people who did not consider quality as well as quantity. It had been claimed that secular education produced educated criminals. But a very large per cent. of the criminals had received religious training. No one would suppose that this was an incentive to crime.

There had been a decrease in serious crimes since 1865 of 44 per cent. Of crimes against order and decency, the number had increased, and the greater number of these were for drunkenness. This showing was against the belief of many people, who used what Dr. Harris called "hysterical statistics."

Of the secular virtues, justice was a particular virtue promoted by secular education. So were prudence and thrift.

#### UNIVERSITY EXTENSION.

The second topic of the evening was on "University Extension," a movement which Mr. Hudson Shaw, fellow of Balliol college, Cambridge, England, said was, perhaps, first started in that institution. Mr. Shaw is one of the foremost exponents of the extension of university education.

The promoters of this movement, said the speaker, believe that culture should no longer be the possession of a class, but should be extended to the people who toil.

We want, he added, to share with them what we ourselves have received at the universities. So far we have proved it is possible to lecture to great audiences of artisans on these higher subjects with success. And what has been done in England can be done in at least a thousand towns in this country.

#### THURSDAY.

Supt. Henry Sabin, editor of the *Iowa School Journal* spoke on "Grading of Country Schools."

"No greater misfortune could befall the country schools than an adoption of the systems governing city schools."

Addison B. Poland, state superintendent of schools of New Jersey, then explained the graded system of New Jersey rural schools, which, he said, has been in force for 21 years.

He would remedy the short and irregular attendance of pupils in rural schools, the mistakes of untrained and inexperienced teachers in classifying their schools. Teachers become familiar with the country system, and on going into a new school recognize immediately its appropriate classification.

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Discussed by Dr. Harris, Henry R. Pattengill, state superintendent of Michigan, and State Superintendent Raab, of Illinois.

"THE SUPERVISION OF COUNTRY SCHOOLS,"

was the subject of a paper by State Superintendent D. J. Waller, Jr., of Pennsylvania.

He spoke especially of the work and duties of a county superintendent. He should not have charge of local arrangements calling for expenditure of money. He should control the instruction and should be a state official chosen by the people. He illustrated his ideas by speaking of the present arrangement in Pennsylvania.

### AFTERNOON SESSION

At the afternoon session Aaron Gove, of Denver, Col., presented a paper on the "Sources of the Supply of Teachers in the City Schools."

"While the average teaching life of woman in America is said not to exceed three and one-half years, I presume the life of the city teacher is but little longer. A popular source of supply is the city normal school, the output of which, unless well scattered over a large extent of country, fails to accomplish the full measure of its power.

"Girls in the schools to-day are the teachers of to-morrow. The value of professional experiences is frequently lessened by the idiosyncrasies of advancing age. The old schoolmistress never occupies the place that the old schoolmaster does.

“Of 1000 teachers in a certain city, 800 were bred and educated right there. This was an extremely comfortable and dangerous supply. The superintendent sent them and their work from youth up, and a personal inspection of schools seems unnecessary. He knows just what is going on. Hence the whole establishment wears deeper and deeper into the ruts. To change this may seem to mar a beautiful and harmonious system—the thing to avoid; beauty, harmony, quiet, and peace being nowhere ‘in place,’ except at the cemetery.”

"The best and surest post-graduate course for a normal school graduate is a season in charge of a country school."

## HOW TO TRAIN TEACHERS.

Superintendent Thomas M. Balliet, of Springfield, spoke of the training of teachers. He said in part:

" Schools cannot be reformed by dismissing inefficient teachers. In cities where there are many inefficient teachers salaries are low, and it would be impossible to replace poor teachers by good ones at such salaries. In such cities schools are always mixed up with politics. Such a community would not sustain a policy which would weed out the poor teachers. Ward politicians are, however, not the only obstructionists. Ministers of the gospel frequently show their sympathies for a poor teacher to ruin a way with their judgment and embarrass conscientious work on the part of a school committee.

"Teachers ought to be trained, and in two ways. Every city of considerable size ought to have a city normal school, with a special class for experienced teachers. Inefficient teachers, for whom there seems to be still some hope, ought to be obliged to discontinue teaching for a year, enter this class and be "made over." If their work in the normal school does not promise success in the future they ought to be entirely dismissed.

<sup>14</sup> In the second place, the character of school supervision must be changed. Expert supervision in this sense will be the supervision of the future. The superintendent's energy ought to be expended in teaching pedagogics. He ought to throw his main strength into the teachers' meeting. He ought to give as a systematic instruction as is given in the best normal schools and colleges. If he is not competent to do this, it is difficult to see why he should hold his position.

"In the large cities, the superintendent must have a large corps of assistants. The city must be divided into districts, and meetings of teachers in groups of not more than 200 be held. The superintendent ought to lecture, at these sectional meetings, to all the teachers of a large city at least once in two months, if not oftener.

" Besides this, he must spend a large part of his time in visiting the schools to make himself thoroughly familiar with the defects of the teaching and the weak points in the management.

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"In the past, supervision has busied itself too much with petty criticisms, petty suggestions in regard to petty details. School supervision in the future will aim at opening up to teachers broad lines of educational thought, giving them inspiration and stimulus to put their brains into their work and training them to work out the details of methods of teaching in the light of general principles. It is the business of the superintendent to create an educational atmosphere in the city, arouse enthusiasm among his teachers in their works and direct public sentiment, in regard to education, into right channels."

#### NON-PROGRESSIVE AND RETROGRESSIVE TEACHERS.

Supt. J. M. Greenwood, of Kansas City, Mo., answered the question: "What Shall be Done with Non-Progressive and Retrogressive Teachers?"

"Habits of mind and mind activity, whether of children or adults, engendered by routine work, requiring little or no mental effort, produce mind atrophy. The teacher who goes over the same class work year after year contracts mental habits that dwarf, cramp, and deaden intellectual activity by focusing it on small bits of the subjects taught. To concentrate the attention is a narrowing process not only in regard to the scope of the subject-matter, but through the channels along which the thought lines run.

"Change is the law that prolongs life. The same law holds true concerning the nerve and brain forces. It is not the work in the school-room as such that produces "mind cramp" in the teacher, but the concentration of attention to a very restricted limit in one single line direction. In lesson hearing and lesson thinking, the brain channels are worn deeper and deeper by constant attention. To utilize as much of the brain surface as is possible and

to set as many different counter currents into active operation, appear to be the only rational solution of this question. When the brain channels, or gullies, are so deeply carved out and the walls are case-hardened, so to speak, counter currents of thought at work on the brain itself are about as effective as sheet lightning in a cloud that has past—a mere light flashing on the surface and nothing more. When one has passed into this stage of intellectual fossilization, nothing short of volcanic or dynamic action will produce any appreciable effect, and then perhaps only a temporary flicker.

"The first kind of help is that of ascertaining information as to the teacher's knowledge of the branches taught. This information is best ascertained at recess, noon, or in conversation at the superintendent's office. Such conversations should be brought about in an informal way, and ought to be conducted as a free interchange of ideas, touching the subjects under consideration. The idea that is here uppermost in any mind, is to have each teacher always forging ahead, adding new capital, as it were, to the ready cash capital on hand. New work of some kind for every teacher is absolutely necessary.

"The second means of improving teachers is that of monthly, or some other regular meetings, in which as many as possible take part in the proceedings. The real danger to be apprehended from them is that of doling out instructions and directions in regard to grade work, nearly all of which is forgotten before the teachers leave the hall. A kind of mental inertia is developed in many teachers' meetings, which is responsible for much of the "brain cramp" found in too many city school systems. A few good, active, progressive teachers in one school will set all the others to thinking. By selecting the most alert in each school, a little leaven will leaven the whole lump. The fear of being left in the dust of the procession is a spur if wisely directed. Teachers ought not to be kept on the jump or in a high state of

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#### THE CLOSING SESSION.

In the evening the meeting was held at the Boston Latin school building. Pres. Charles De Garmo, of Swarthmore college, spoke on "The Value of Literature for Moral Culture."

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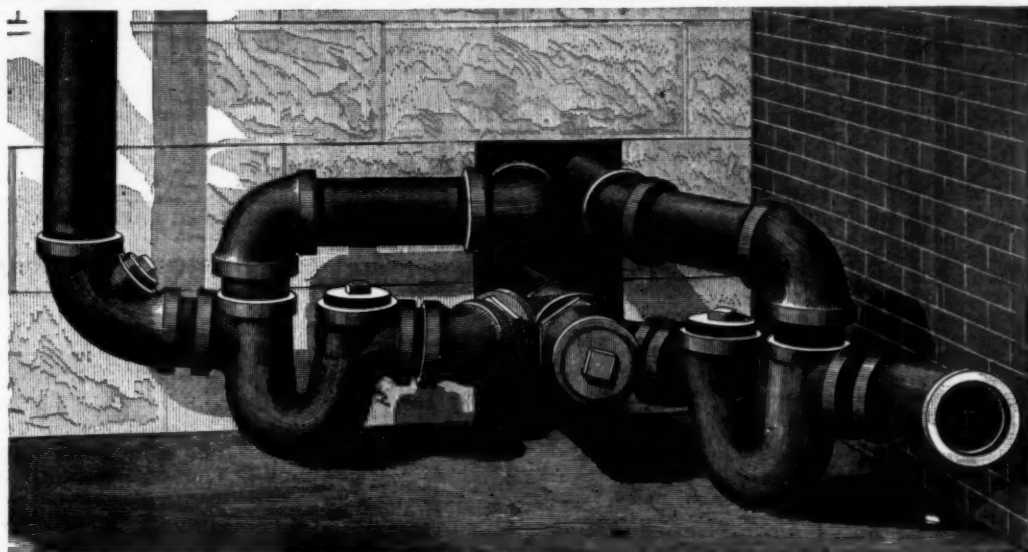
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